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THE PARADOX OF OXFORD¹

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It is commonly agreed that no other city in Great Britain lays so potent a spell on the visitor as Oxford. The gardens of the sister university along the Cam may catch the charm of an English summer more entrancingly; Edinburgh, with her crown of hills, and her cavernous wynds, may be more picturesque; London, with her pride of empire, her spoils of art, her web of human triumphs and despair, may be more appalling to the imagination; but there is something in the aspect of the crowded, cloistered colleges of Oxford that penetrates more deeply into the mind of the observer and leaves him not quite the same man as before. Such at least was my experience last summer when I visited the town for the first time. "There is an air about it resonant of joy and hope: it speaks with a thousand tongues to the heart; it waves its mighty shadow over the imagination: . . . its streets are paved with the names of learning that can never wear out: its green quadrangles breathe the silence of thought, conscious of the weight of yearnings innumerable after the past, of loftiest aspirations for the future."

It was this feeling of the intellectual hopes and moral ideas of many generations of men here made visible in stone, rather than what has been called the "almost despairing sense of loveliness,"

¹Address before the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club at Ann Arbor, Michigan, April 4, 1913.

that stirred me profoundly as I walked from court to court in the expressive silence of the long vacation. It was a feeling good and salutary for the heart. Yet in the end the impression left upon me was curiously mixed. I was elated and teased at the same time; my spirits were, so to speak, both enlarged and contracted. In part this was due, no doubt, to the manifest incongruities of the town itself as it has developed in these latter years. From the mediaeval seclusion of a quadrangle one steps into a street now bustling with modern shops and a very unmediaeval throng of shoppers. Only a little while ago, in Matthew Arnold's day, "the pleasant country still ran up to the walls and gates of the colleges; no fringe of mean or commonplace suburbs interposed between the coronal of spires and towers and its green setting." But now, if the visitor, with his mind filled with the lonely religious wrestlings of Newman, would walk out to Iffley and Littlemore, he must pass through long rows of vulgar and tawdry villas. There is something disconcerting in these inharmonious contrasts. And, guided perhaps by this discord of the past and the present, one begins to be aware of something paradoxical in the beauty and significance of the university itself. The very architecture of the place, with all its charm, is a kind of anomaly. "True to her character of the home of lost causes and impossible loyalties, Oxford clung with a tragic desperation to her ancient garments of Gothic pattern, hugging them about her until, worn to rags and tatters, they dropped off, and she was constrained to clothe her nakedness with the sole contemporary dress available in the eighteenth century, to wit, that sheer Palladianism into which the illusory 'New Birth' movement itself had by that time degenerated. Thus it befell that Oxford architecture never passed through the normal gamut of successive phases of declension from the sixteenth century onward, but that between the perfection of English mediaeval masoncraft . . . and the corrupt fashion of Trinity, Queen's, and Worcester Colleges, . . . there was no intermediate stage but that of the so-called 'Oxford Gothic.'"¹

And this "picturesque hybrid" in building, which is neither Renaissance nor mediaeval, neither quite Greek nor quite Christian,

¹ Aymer Vallance, *The Old Colleges of Oxford*.

is symbolical of what Oxford has stood for intellectually and morally. With good right one of her own living poets has described her as

. . . . the mother of celestial moods,
Who o'er the saints' inviolate array
Hath starred her robe of fair beatitudes
With jewels worn by Hellas.

There is, if you stop to think about it, this huge inconsistency underlying the institution of Oxford. It was founded as a monastic school to train boys for the priesthood, and its colleges still bear something of the outward appearance of cloistered retreats. Until well into the last century every matriculant was obliged to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles, and still today the policy of the university is largely controlled by a Convocation of black-robed priests who come up from their country parishes with the zeal of the church burning in their breasts. Yet education at Oxford, though it was at the first directed to monkish ends and though until very recently it retained a good deal of that scholastic coloring, was from an early date, if not from the beginning, crossed with Pagan ideals. Aristotle was held to be an authority in morals by the side of St. Augustine, prayers were offered to Jehovah when Olympian Zeus was in the heart of the worshiper, and boys were taught, are still taught, to mold their emotions at once to the modes of the Psalms and of Horace.

This is what I have meant by the classical paradox of Oxford, giving it that name not because this inconsistency is peculiar to the university, but because there more than anywhere else it is driven into the imagination by the teasing charm of a petrified and glorified tradition. It is indeed, if we look below the surface of things, deeply imbedded in the foundations of our whole modern life and points far back to that Hellenistic civilization in which the ideals of Greece and the Orient were mingled to produce the new world. To explain what I mean by this questionable but very fruitful union, I cannot do better than quote a few sentences from the little treatise of Lucian called *The Wisdom of Nigrinus*. We have in this dialogue the story of a visit to a philosopher of the second century of our era who styled himself a Platonist, a denizen of Rome but probably

enough, like his friend Lucian, a child of Asia. One of the persons of the dialogue, having been in Rome, reports thus the philosopher's own account of his mode of life:

Choosing thereby a sort of life which seems to most people womanish and spiritless, I converse with Plato, Philosophy, and Truth, and seating myself, as it were, high up in a theater full of untold thousands, I look down on what takes place, which is of a quality sometimes to afford amusement and laughter, sometimes to prove a man's true steadfastness. . . . One has cause to admire philosophy when he beholds so much folly, and to despise the gifts of fortune when he sees on the stage of life a play of many rôles, in which one man enters first as servant, then as master; another first as rich, then as poor. . . . I have said that there is food for laughter and amusement in what goes on; let me now explain it. To begin with, are not the rich ridiculous? They display their purple gowns and show their rings and betray an unbounded lack of taste. . . . Far more ridiculous, however, than the rich are those who visit them and pay them court. They get up at midnight, run all about the city, let servants bolt the doors in their faces, and suffer themselves to be called dogs, toadies, and similar names. By way of reward for this galling round of visits they get the much-talked-of dinner, a vulgar thing, the source of many evils. [Translated by A. M. Harmon.]

All this, the visitor goes on to say, seemed to Nigrinus quite ludicrous. And further, he reports, Nigrinus

made special mention of people who cultivate philosophy for hire and put virtue on sale over a counter. . . . For he maintained that one who intends to teach contempt of wealth should first of all show that he is himself above gain. Certainly he used to put these principles into practice. . . . So far was he from coveting the property of others that even when his own property was going to rack and ruin he did not concern himself about it. . . . He made no secret of his condemnation of the sort of philosophers who think it a course in virtue if they train the young to endure "full many pains and toils," the majority recommending cold baths, though some whip them, and still others, the more refined of their sort, scrape the surface of their skin with a knife-blade.

As for the visitor to Nigrinus, he himself tells the strange effect of the philosopher's words upon him.

In a great fit of confusion and giddiness [he says], I dripped with sweat, I stumbled and stuck in the endeavor to speak, my voice failed, my tongue faltered, and finally I began to cry in embarrassment. . . . My wound was deep and vital, and his words, shot with great accuracy, clove, if I may say so, my very soul in twain.

This, it is almost necessary to observe, is not a scene of conversion from Wesley's *Diary*, but is a page from the book of one who, more perhaps than any other writer of his age, was steeped in the traditional learning of Greece. Yet what a change! How far we have got from Pindar's song of "wisdom blooming in the soul," from his praise of the man who, because death awaits at the end, will not "sit vainly in the dark through a dull and nameless age, and without lot in noble deeds," and from his glorification of those upon whom, for their reverence of things divine in the hour of splendid triumph, "the pleasant lyre and the sweet pipe shed their grace"! We have gone a great way from Aristotle's notion of the honorable man, the *σπουδαῖος*, who in winning the world has won also his own soul. And even if, formally, the ideal of Nigrinus can in a way be connected with Plato's contrast of the visible and invisible worlds, yet the animus, so to speak, of the new wisdom is something very different from that which heartened men in the garden of the Athenian Academy. In place of the philosopher who, seeking the vision of the gods, still kept in his heart the fair and happy things of Hellas, and who, knowing the emptiness of life's rewards, was nevertheless ready to serve and govern the state, we now have one who regards it as the highest goal of life to sit in a kind of idle abstraction from the world and hypnotize himself with the wisdom of his lord. This new race of philosophers indeed, whom Lucian eulogizes on one page and ridicules on another, are but bearded monks who have not learned the name of their real master; they speak the words of Athens, but with barbarous images in their souls. Their denial of practical life will be known all through the Middle Ages as the *contemptus mundi*, and already one sees how their asceticism and praise of poverty divide them harshly into saints and hypocrites not entirely unlike those of the cloister.

There is an emotional difference between the philosophers of the Hellenistic world and the monks of the Christian world, due largely no doubt to the fact that the former still confessed the Socratic doctrine, however they may have distorted it, whereas the latter honestly subjected it to what they regarded as a higher revelation. Yet the paradox still troubles the new religion. The basis of education, in language entirely and to no small extent in ideas, remains

Greek and Latin, however the superstructure may be Christian and oriental. Nor were the Fathers and rulers of the church unaware of this; their trick of decrying Pagan literature is due in no small part to a feeling of uneasy dependence on it for their knowledge and philosophy. They would use it and at the same time spurn it under their feet as they reached up to the celestial wisdom. So in a comment on a verse in Kings: "But all the Israelites went down to the Philistines, to sharpen every man his share, his coulter, and his axe," Gregory the Great, or some other, applies the words to the contrast between the classical tradition and the new faith.

We go down to the Philistines [he says] when we incline the mind to secular studies; Christian simplicity is upon a height. Secular books are said to be in the plain since they have no celestial truths. God put secular knowledge in a plain before us that we should use it as a step to ascend to the heights of Scripture. So Moses first learned the wisdom of the Egyptians that he might be able to understand and expound the divine precepts; Isaiah, most eloquent of the prophets, was *nobiliter instructus et urbanus*; and Paul had sat at Gamaliel's feet before he was lifted to the height of the third heaven. One goes to the Philistines to sharpen one's plow, because secular learning is needed as a training for Christian preaching.¹

But if mediaeval man, in general, was ready to accept the Pagan tradition as a mere treasure of the Philistines to be plundered for the benefit of the chosen people, there were those also who made a brave attempt to effect a reconciliation—always, of course, *ad maiorem Dei gloriam*. The most notable of these efforts is the stupendous *Summa* of St. Thomas Aquinas, in which the newly discovered philosophy of Aristotle is welded into Christian doctrine to make a vast body of theology. The words of the Philosopher (no other name is needed to designate Aristotle, as the master of those that know) and sentences of the Fathers are quoted together without distinction as if they were of one and the same authority. But, despite the admirable patience and inexhaustible cunning of the Angelic Doctor, an instructed reader can go through his work and distinguish the two elements of which his system is composed, as we can separate the two metals of an alloy; there is no chemical compound here, but a mechanical mixture. The distinction can be made visible to the eyes by turning to Dante, whose allegory of the

¹ From H. O. Taylor, *The Mediaeval Mind*.

future is based frankly on the *Summa* of St. Thomas. There is significance in the very guides who carry the pilgrim through hell and purgatory up to the celestial sphere. In the first two realms, Virgil, the bearer of the classical tradition, is sufficient, but when the poet from the earthly Paradise is about to mount to the heavenly Paradise and the vision of God he needs the help of Beatrice, who is the symbol and voice of theology.

When we pass from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance we find two notable movements aiming at an elimination of this inherited inconsistency. One of these may be called the Pagan revival. It was nothing less than an effort to surmount the difficulty by throwing away the moral ideals of both Christianity and classicism and clinging to the purely natural and imaginative aspects of the ancient world in what came to be regarded as Paganism. Not a little of the art and literature of Italy is of that utterly non-moral sort. The other movement undertook to reconcile Greek philosophy and Christianity in a synthesis which should embrace the higher and, in this differing from the work of St. Thomas, the less dogmatic elements of each. This was the half-avowed purpose of the Cambridge Platonists, a noble ambition which somehow, owing perhaps to the absence of any great genius among them, they just failed to achieve. Their failure was the tragedy of the age, and left the task still to be accomplished, if, indeed, it can in any way be accomplished.

It may seem that I am dwelling over much on a commonplace; yet I doubt if we often realize how deeply this discrepancy lies imbedded in our modern civilization. Certainly the knowledge of it came to me last summer at Oxford with the force almost of discovery. And I remember the hour and the place of the awakening. It was one gray day in the quadrangle of Oriel College, as I stood by the entrance to the Common Room looking up at the windows of what had been the rooms of John Henry Newman. In that college the Oxford Movement had its inception and passed away. The little group of scholars who in the Common Room met together and discussed the meaning of religion and the office of the church were men trained and steeped in Aristotle and the other classics; they never lost that discipline, yet their whole

endeavor was to bring back the mediaeval interpretation of life. An amusing incident of this tendency is connected with Dr. Hampden's Bampton Lectures on scholastic philosophy, delivered in 1832, and afterward published. No one in Oxford read the book, not even Newman who wrote against it, and no one there had read any scholastic philosophy, says Mr. Mozley, who ought to know; he even declares that the book is unreadable, and I, for one, have taken his word for it. Yet the rumor got about that Dr. Hampden was trying to undermine the authority of mediaeval tradition, and the horror and hubbub were enormous. The situation became at least anomalous when Hampden, though Regius Professor of Divinity, was deprived of his place on the board that chose the Select Preachers for the University.

These things came to my mind as I stood in the quiet quadrangle of Oriel, and then I remembered the life of the man who must so often in moments of perplexity have looked out of the windows over my head, gathering from this very scene comfort and strength for his battle with the world. Newman, if anyone, was the very embodiment of the Oxford spirit, and if we think of his great struggle as a hesitation between the Anglican and Roman churches, it was, in a deeper sense, the agony of an intuitive soul caught in the dilemma of the two traditions of which the very stones of his college with their hybrid architecture, neither Renaissance nor Gothic, are a symbol. How thoroughly his mind was endued with the humanistic spirit, how much the great poets of antiquity meant to him, may be known from one of his famous paragraphs, one of the supreme things of our speech:

Let us consider, too, how differently young and old are affected by the words of some classic author, such as Homer or Horace. Passages, which to a boy are but rhetorical commonplaces, neither better nor worse than a hundred others, which any clever writer might supply, which he gets by heart and thinks very fine, and imitates, as he thinks, successfully, in his own flowing versification, at length come home to him, when long years have passed, and he has had experience of life, and pierce him, as if he had never before known them, with their sad earnestness and vivid exactness. Then he comes to understand how it is that lines, the birth of some chance morning or evening at an Ionian festival, or among the Sabine hills, have lasted generation after generation, for thousands of years, with a power over the mind, and a charm which the current literature

of his own day, with all its obvious advantages, is utterly unable to rival. Perhaps this is the reason of the mediaeval opinion about Virgil, as of a prophet or a magician; his single words and phrases, his pathetic half-lines, giving utterance, as the voice of Nature herself, to that pain and weariness, yet hope of better things, which is the experience of her children in every time.

That is the purest humanism. It is the classic tradition carried in a mind fitted by nature and by long training to live in the clear air of the antique world. It is, or was until yesterday, the finest flower of our education. It characterizes the more open nurture of the Anglican church. Yet all this Newman was to surrender, borne away by the narrower and intenser current of mediaevalism, to his own and our incalculable loss. You may hear his recantation in the chapter on "Christianity and Letters" in *The Idea of a University*:

And while we thus recur to Greece and Athens with pleasure and affection, and recognize in that famous land the source and the school of intellectual culture, it would be strange indeed if we forgot to look further south also, and there to bow before a more glorious luminary, and a more sacred oracle of truth, and the source of another sort of knowledge, high and supernatural, which is seated in Palestine. Jerusalem is the fountain-head of religious knowledge, as Athens is of secular.

The English priest's language is suaver than was that of the Italian pope from whom I have already quoted, but beneath the surface he is saying nothing different from the haughty and rude Gregory: "One goes to the Philistines to sharpen one's plow, because secular learning is needed as a training for Christian preaching."

This, then, is the paradox of Oxford. It is a thing of the past, you will say, and came to end soon after the departure of Newman for his spiritual Rome. So in a way it is, and there's the pity of it. The world could not forever rest the higher elements of its civilization on ideas which are mutually destructive: on the one side the human ideal of self-development and individual responsibility, on the other that of self-surrender and vicarious redemption; and in these latter years, having freed ourselves from unquestioning submission to authority, we have eased ourselves of the difficulty of reconciling the two traditions by throwing over the past altogether

as a criterion of life. The classics have pretty well gone, and if we study them at all it is as if they were dead languages, useful it may be as a gymnastic discipline for the mind and a source of uncontaminated beauty, but with little or no sense that they contain a body of human experience and tried wisdom by which we may still guide our steps as we stumble upon the dark ways of this earth. And so, however our churches may still lift their spires into the air and however our priests may still repeat the sacrifice of the Eucharist, for the world at large the mediaeval meaning and the binding force of these symbols have been forgotten or are fast forgetting; some consolation they may give and some hope they may offer, but it is largely through their aesthetic appeal, and heaven is not in them. In place of the secular tradition of the classics we have turned to science, and in place of obedience to the will of God we are seeking for salvation in humanitarian sympathy with our brother men. And these things are well in their way, but they do not supply and can never supply the comfort and elevation of the other disciplines. Science, with all its perspicacity, can see no place within its scheme for what is after all the heart of humanity and the source of true humanism—the consciousness of something within us that stands apart from material law and guides itself to ends of happiness and misery which do not belong to nature. And humanitarianism, however it may be concerned with human destinies and however it may call upon our emotions, leaves out of account the deep thirst of the soul for the infinite wells of peace; it has forgotten the scriptural promise of peace and the truth which St. Augustine knew: *Quia fecisti nos ad te et inquietum est cor nostrum, donec requiescat in te*—"For thou hast made us for thyself, and our heart cannot be quieted until it resteth in thee."

No, there is a great lack in our life today, which we feel and secretly acknowledge to ourselves, despite much bragging of progress and much outward scorn of the things we have cast away. I shall not expatiate now on this fact, of which many, if not all, of you are at bottom, I think, as fully conscious as I am. At any rate time and the occasion force me to take it for granted, and to beg your consideration of the means at our disposal for restoring what has been lost. And first of all there can be no sound restoration unless

we can escape that paradox of civilization symbolized by the stones of Oxford. Now one relief from the dilemma is open and sure: we can sacrifice one of the opposing traditions entirely and cling to the other. And for my part, if it is necessary, I am ready to throw overboard all that has come to us from the Middle Ages. The gain for education would in some directions be clear and immediate. To leave Anglo-Saxon to a few specialists and to cut it out of the common curriculum designed for discipline and culture would have happy results in the study of English; to waive the remote and doubtful benefits of Gothic and the old Romance dialects for Goethe and Racine and others who carried on the classical tradition would be a fruitful saving of time.

No doubt there would be a great loss also to reckon with in such a choice. If nothing else, the religious literature of the age is a vast storehouse of intense and purifying passion from which each of us may draw and supply the lack in his individual emotions. You remember the scene at Ostia on the Tiber, when Augustine with his mother, who was now approaching the end of this life, stood alone together at the window looking into a garden, and talked of the things that are to be. And at the last of their speech they turned to the joy that should ravish the soul and swallow it up, when the tumults of the flesh were silenced, and the images of the earth and the waters and the air were silenced, and the poles of the sky were silent, and the very heart grew still to itself, and all dreams and visionary revelations, and every tongue and every sign were hushed in silence; and as they thus spoke the rapture of heaven came so near that this world was lost for them in contempt—*et mundus iste nobis inter verba vilesceret cum omnibus delectationibus suis*. That is the deep emotion that was passed from man to man and from soul to soul through the devastations of the Middle Ages, and with it the ecstatic cry of the saintly mother, *Quid hic facio*, "What do I here?" For those who have not imprisoned themselves in the life of the present, the sermons of St. Bernard, the great prayers and hymns of the church, even the austere dialectic of Thomas Aquinas, are a reservoir from which we may still draw that celestial and intoxicating drink. There are some of us—I confess that I myself am such a one—for whom, because of

temperament or training, the closing of that source would mean an irreparable loss. Yet we are so impressed by a greater need of the world, that we are ready to lay iconoclastic hands on the whole fabric of the Middle Ages and to sweep it away altogether, with all its good and all its evil. It may be that no such harsh procedure is necessary. Indeed, as I have said, the mediaeval tradition has come to have so little vital force, it is so much a mere *cadaver* for the seminar, that in advocating its elimination from the common curriculum of the schools, we shall scarcely be doing violence to anything useful or sacred. It is possible, furthermore, that, if ever we have another renaissance in our education and the past is taken up again as a living and creative power in the imagination, some means may be discovered to effect that reconciliation between the classical and mediaeval views which the earlier Renaissance desired but could not find.

But that is more or less chimerical. What lies at our hands, and what I believe thoughtful men are more and more beginning to recognize as imperative for our higher intellectual and artistic life, is a clear understanding of the paradoxical nature of the bases upon which education has until recently stood, with the consequences thereof, and a return, if possible, to pure classical tradition and discipline. I am aware that this recognition is still of a vague and ineffective sort, while in practice Greek is certainly losing ground day by day and Latin is scarcely gaining. But a good deal of futile-seeming talk has before now preceded an actual revolution, and who shall say that the tide may not turn at any hour and the classics which we praise and neglect may not almost suddenly step into their own again? At any rate it behooves those who are now teaching Greek and Latin, with a feeling of despair perhaps, to lay to heart what hope they can, and to make sure that, when the change comes, if it do indeed come, they may be found ready and fully prepared to give the world what it needs. Meanwhile they have a plain task and duty. It may seem vague and impractical to talk of maintaining a tradition for some future change in the whole trend of a civilization; there is at least something clear and close at hand which the teacher can do, and which may confer a benefit upon himself and upon what earnest pupils he has.

In the first place, those who are teaching can effect a certain reform in their methods. We have gained a good deal from German scholarship, but we have also lost something. Let us, if we can, retain the diligence and accuracy which have come from the German seminar, but let us remember that the tendency of the past century has been to make of the classics a closed field for the investigating specialist and to draw the attention away from their value as a literary discipline containing an imperishable criticism of life. That evil has been recognized, and we are trying to remedy it. But at the present time we may be led astray by what may seem in itself a peculiar advantage to the classicist—I mean the discovery of a vast body of Greek writing which lies so to speak on the outskirts of literature, and the unearthing of great archaeological treasures. These things are undoubtedly good in themselves, and they may be used to give a vividness and reality to ancient life such as we have never had. But they contain also a real danger. After all, these inscriptions and discoveries scarcely touch on what is the vital classical tradition—the interpretation of the human heart and those glimpses into the destinies for which we go to Homer and Sophocles and Plato and Lucretius and Virgil. It is possible that archaeology may throw the emphasis on the wrong place and obscure the true issues. I say then, with due deference to those who have more authority to speak than I have, that the first thing to do is to see that archaeology, valuable and interesting as it is, be kept in its proper relative place, and be not allowed to dazzle our eyes by the wonder of its discoveries.

What we need chiefly is a deeper knowledge and finer understanding of those few authors who are really the classics. We need to reassure ourselves that as pure human literature they still stand supreme and unapproached. I for one am ready to avow my opinion, and I believe that no great advance in the classics is possible until this belief is proclaimed boldly and generally, that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* have a beauty and humanity that no modern epic poet has ever touched—not Milton himself, though I adore Milton this side idolatry. There is no lyric poetry in modern tongues that has the music and exquisite feeling of Sappho's Lesbian songs, or the soaring strength of Pindar's impassioned vision. No one else

has ever quite caught again the mellow suavity of Horace. No later philosopher has translated the eternal verities into such perfect speech as Plato. I have seen Edwin Booth in *Lear* and *Macbeth* and *Hamlet*, and felt the grip of Shakespeare at my very heart. But I have seen a band of young amateurs present the *Agamemnon* in the Stadium at Harvard, and through the crudeness of their acting and the helplessness of the chorus and the disadvantage of a language I could scarcely follow, I still knew that here was a higher form of drama than anything on the modern stage, and that the art of Aeschylus was profounder and more everlasting in its emotional appeal than Shakespeare's even.

The teacher who desires to impress his pupils with the value and greatness of classical literature must first feel those qualities himself. He may, perhaps, think that my estimation of the ancient poets is relatively overdrawn, though I mean to speak only my sober conviction, but he must at least read those poets, read and read, and steep his mind in their images and phrases. But it is even more important, as things now are, that he should ponder the ideas that underlie the ancient poets and philosophers, their ethical interpretation of individual and social experience, not only as these ideas are expressed directly and didactically, but more particularly in that glancing and suggestive manner which Matthew Arnold meant to convey in his phrase "the criticism of life." For, frankly, if a man is not convinced that the classics contain a treasure of practical and moral wisdom which is imperatively needed as a supplement to the one-sided theories of the present day and as a corrective of much that is distorted in our views, he had better take up some other subject to teach than Greek or Latin. The subject is too large and debatable to deal with in a paragraph. But two famous stanzas from Wordsworth and Coleridge, who did more than any other poets to fashion the higher ethical feeling of the age, may give a hint of where the discussion would lead. You may guess the stanza from Wordsworth:

One impulse from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.

Literally taken the idea of these lines is, of course, sheer humbug, and Wordsworth no doubt wrote them in a vein of playfulness; but after all they agree with a good deal of the easy philosophy of the century, and they are the precise poetical equivalent of the scientific study of nature which has displaced the humanities. The other stanza is from *The Ancient Mariner*:

He prayeth best, who loveth best
All things both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us,
He made and loveth all.

The sentiment, you will say, is innocent and pious enough, but it points unmistakably to the other tendency of the day, that humanitarian notion of indistinguishing sympathy which is rapidly becoming the religion of the people and the theme of serious literature to the exclusion of other ideals. Now, it is perfectly plain that the whole influence of classical literature is against the exaggeration of these naturalistic and humanitarian tendencies. Consider the meaning of one of Pindar's odes, or of Horace's epistles, or reflect on the ethics of Aristotle; the emphasis is everywhere on distinctions and judgment in place of sympathy, and on the grave responsibility of the individual man for the conduct of his own soul. Bacchylides in one brief memorable phrase has summed up the wisdom of his people: *ὅσια δρῶν εὐφραίνει θυμόν*—"doing what is right in the eyes of heaven, make glad your soul." Unless the teacher is convinced that the pregnant meaning of those words may be used, and should be used, as a corrective of the naturalistic and humanitarian exaggerations of our day, he had better devote his energy to some other subject.

I am assuming, you see, that the classics contain in themselves an ideal capable of relieving us from the undue predominance of both the scientific philosophy and the humanitarianism of the day, but some of you may raise a doubt at this point. It is clear, you will say, that the humanism of the classics may be used to offset the inhumanity of our scientific absorption, but what have they to offer to balance the humanitarian absorption in comfort and the things of this world? How can they alone give us back what we have lost with the disappearance of the mediaeval belief in the

infinite? This question has been particularly forced upon my mind by reading a book from Oxford, by Mr. R. W. Livingstone, in support of the classical propaganda. Formerly it seemed sufficient to dwell on the aesthetic superiority of Greek art and literature, but of recent years that appeal has been reinforced by an attempt to set forth the ethical and practical value of Greek ideas for men today in the distraction of our own civilization. And so Mr. Livingstone calls his volume of essays "*The Greek Genius and Its Meaning to Us.*" The change is well, and may have its effect in time, though at present the new appeal may seem to fall on deaf ears.

Mr. Livingstone is right also in seeing that the crux of the matter is in the sense to be attached to the word "humanism." "There are few more important problems than this," he declares; "is humanism right? Is it right to take a purely human attitude toward life, to assume that man is the measure of all things, and to believe that, even though the unseen may be there, still we can know our duty and live our life without reference to it? That is perhaps the biggest question of the present day." The problem, so far as it goes, could not be stated more vigorously, and no one can read Mr. Livingstone's exposition of Greek humanism without pleasure and enlargement of mind. Yet in the end it is not quite plain that he has grasped the full force of the word. Certain writers, among whom not the least guilty is Professor Schiller, a philosophical Fellow of his own college, Corpus Christi, have deliberately clouded the meaning of "humanism" by confusing it with "humanitarianism," which is in fact its very opposite, and it is not clear that Mr. Livingstone, who may be taken as the spokesman of a common tendency among scholars, has escaped entirely from this entanglement. His praise of the Sophists as the true exponents of humanism, his acceptance of Nietzsche's sharp distinction between the Dionysian and Apollonian aspects of Greek civilization, his emphasis of the exotic side of Plato, and his rejection of Sophocles as the norm of Athenian genius are sufficient at least to raise a doubt in one's mind. "Man is the measure of all things"—no doubt that is humanism; it rejects the divine and the infinite in so far as these are conceived to be superhuman or antihuman, and in this way it is antagonistic to the whole scope

of mediaevalism; it rejects the superhuman, and, in a sense, the supernatural, but he is far from understanding its full scope who supposes that it necessarily excludes also the higher, even the highest, elements of the human soul itself. The error is not new. The Greeks gave us the sense of beauty, is an old saying, but they did so by limiting themselves to the laws of harmony and proportion; as a compensation the Middle Ages gave us the sense of the infinite. The most eloquent and authoritative expression of this view is Renan's famous Prayer on the Acropolis, in his *Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse*. Standing on that citadel of the old Athenian faith, with the marvelous ruins of the Parthenon before his eyes, he uttered, in words you will remember, his adoration of the Goddess Athena:

O nobility! O simple and true beauty! Deity whose cult signifies reason and wisdom, thou whose temple is an eternal lesson in conscience and sincerity, I come late to the threshold of thy mysteries. To find thee there were needed for me endless studies. The invitation which thou gavest to the Athenian at his birth with a smile, I have conquered only by reflection and at the price of long labor. . . .

Dost thou remember that day, under the archonship of Dionysodorus, when a little ugly Jew, speaking the Greek of Syria, came hither, passed over thy sacred place, read thy inscriptions without understanding, and found in thy enclosure an altar, as he thought, dedicated to *the unknown God*? Ah well, this little Jew has won the day; for a thousand years thou, O Truth, wast treated as an idol; for a thousand years the world was a desert wherein no flower grew. . . . Goddess of order, image of the steadfastness of heaven, to love thee was accounted a sin, and today, now that by painful toil we have come nearer to thee, we are accused of committing a crime against the spirit of man. . . .

The world shall not be saved except it return to thee and repudiate its barbarian bonds.

So far our scholar goes in his praise of the spotless and radiant beauty of Athena, and then, as the surge of mediaevalism flows back upon him, he turns to its symbol in the great vault of St. Sophia at Byzantium with a cry of homesickness: "A great wave of forgetfulness carries us into a gulf without name. O abyss, thou art the only God!" (*O abîme, tu es le Dieu unique!*).

Now the application of this contrast between orderly finite

beauty and the infinite conceived as a formless abyss, this opposition of the human and the divine, is doubly false. The Greeks have had no monopoly of the sense of beauty on the one hand, and on the other hand their submission to the laws of harmony by no means excludes that religious exaltation which we call, for lack of a better name, the infinite. Their great creation, their unique contribution to the world, was just the union of beauty and religious exaltation in forms which remain normally human—that, indeed, is humanism in the highest meaning of the word. If a man doubts the uniqueness of this gift he can easily persuade himself by looking at the Elgin marbles, which stood once on the Parthenon before which Renan uttered his prayer, and comparing them with what he may see elsewhere of art and religious decoration. It is, more particularly, a dull soul that can stand before those weather-worn blocks of stone, commonly called the Three Fates, or even look upon their pictured likeness, and not feel, along with their wonder of sheer beauty, the strange lift and thrill of emotion, the mystery of deep opening within the heart to deep, which Renan professed to feel before the *abime*. There are infinite treasures of beauty that owe nothing to Greece, there are, on the other hand, idols and temples everywhere which strike the beholder with awe, but this human sublimity will be found nowhere else in the world, or if found, whether in the Western Renaissance or in the Buddhistic art of the Far East, can be traced somehow to the influence of Greece. Wherever this influence has not passed, you will find a divorce between measured human beauty and religious exaltation, and an attempt to express the infinite by symbols that are either exaggerated or grotesque or merely vague. The Hindu who wishes to image the divine wisdom will carve an idol with many heads, or if he wishes to set forth the divine power, will give to his god a hundred arms. The men of the Middle Ages knew well enough what is beautiful, but when they undertook to visualize the saint they made him meager and unlovely. Even the cathedrals seek the impression of sublimity by spaces and lines that overwhelm the worshiper with the sense of his littleness; they may be beautiful, but they are not human. Goethe could create beauty, but when he thought of the power which speaks to us so humanly in the Three

Fates he could only express it in the vague and grotesque symbolism of the mystic Mothers.

The true humanism, which speaks in the stones of the Parthenon, does not possess authority and saving power because the human is there regarded as excluding the divine, but the very contrary. The Elgin marbles merely put into visible form the philosophy of Plato, who was ready to follow as a god any man who knew how to combine in his conduct the law of the one and the law of the many; they express the same truth which Aristotle taught in his *Ethics*, that virtue is the golden mean of self-control rather than any excess of self-sacrifice, but that the golden mean is rightly known only to him who desires in contemplation to behold the unmoved, all-moving unity. If we forget this composite meaning of humanism, we shall confuse it either with the hard, dry formalism of the pseudo-classics, or with the sentiment of modern humanitarianism.

I do not presume to say that the opposition between the classical and mediaeval traditions may not in some way be reconciled, or that the paradox to which I have been calling your attention is forever insoluble. But I am sure that for those who believe that no great art and no sure comfort for the questing human spirit can come from an education based overwhelmingly on science and humanitarianism, and who hope for a regeneration of the vivifying ideals of the past—I am sure that for such as these the one practical course is to steep their own minds in the great and proved writers of the ancient world, to nourish their inner life on that larger humanism which embraces the spiritual as well as the aesthetic needs of mankind, and then, if they be teachers of the classics, simply to teach as they can, omitting nothing of rigid discipline, however repellent that discipline may be, but giving also to the pupil from the overflowing fulness of their faith and joy.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

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If you go into any grammar school and visit English classes of the upper grades, you will hear a certain classification of sentences employed—namely, into *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*—and insisted upon as of fundamental importance. It is one of the points in which students are most carefully drilled.

This classification is found, in substance, in all the elementary English grammars in our schools; in the large English grammars of Sweet, Earle, Maetzner, and others; in all our American Latin grammars but one; in various English and German grammars of Latin; in various Greek grammars; in Maetzner's French grammar, Whitney's German grammar, in the recent *Report of the English Committee on Grammatical Terminology*, etc., etc. With a single exception, namely the Hale-Buck *Latin Grammar*, all books that give any scheme give this.

The classification is over two thousand years old. It goes back to Aristotle,¹ whose scheme—a somewhat fuller one, but essentially the same—was: declarative, vocative, optative, interrogative, imperative.

In spite of its venerable history,² I believe, and have long taught, that the classification is unsound, and must be abandoned.

Let us get clearly in mind what each class-name is intended to mean.

The word "interrogative" requires no explanation, and the same is true of the word "exclamatory." The word "declarative," as

¹ The scheme of Aristotle is a modification of the scheme of the Sophist Protagoras. Various others were proposed in antiquity, but this one survived.

² Whoever wishes to hold to it *because* it was Aristotle's must hold also to Aristotle's "vocative sentences" (which only means vocative words) as one of the classes, must add the class "optative," and must give up the class "exclamatory."

interpreted by the examples given in the various books (thus, "the horse runs"), means "making a statement of fact." Moreover, a number of writers distinctly say this. Thus one of them uses the formula, "declarative sentences, those that make a statement of fact," and another "A declarative sentence is a sentence which declares or asserts something as a fact," and another, "imputing truth." We will accordingly so interpret.

The word "imperative" is meant to cover something more than the imperative mood proper. As explained in one or another grammar, it serves as a convenient name to include commands, wishes, requests, etc. Thus one author says, "imperative sentences, those that express a command or a wish;" and another states that imperative sentences "express either a command or a request."

We may then draw up the table as follows:

1. Declarative (making a statement of fact).
2. Interrogative (asking a question).
3. Imperative (expressing a command, a wish, a request, and the like).
4. Exclamatory.

The class "exclamatory" is sometimes omitted, sometimes put under "imperative"—the latter a purely fanciful procedure, like the putting of vocatives under the same head, on the ground that they make a demand for attention.

In testing this traditional scheme, it will be convenient to have a number of examples at hand to ring our changes upon. Let us select the following:

1. Declarative: "He is writing," or *scribit*.
2. Interrogative: { "Is he writing?" or *scribit?*
"Shall he write?" or *scribat?*
3. Imperative: "Let him write," "he shall write," or *scribat*.
4. Exclamatory: "How well he writes!" or *quam bene scribit!*

Now, a sound scheme for the classification of sentences must make an affirmative answer possible for four questions which I am going to put. I will state these questions one at a time, and we will test our scheme for it, and register the answer.

¹ It will be convenient to use the simple form without the interrogative particle *-ne*. Both forms are found in free use.

1. Is the scheme symmetrical?

The two sentences, "Is he writing?" and "Shall he write?" though in part unlike, are necessarily put together, in the scheme, under the head of *interrogative*. Why are they so put together? Because they both ask a question, and for no other reason. No other element enters into consideration. Then the corresponding non-interrogative pair, *scribit*, "he writes," and *scribat*, "he shall write" (or "let him write"), should likewise be found keeping company. The two verbs bear precisely the same relation to each other in the anti-interrogative form as they bore before in the interrogative form. But *do* they fall together in the anti-interrogative form? No. They part company, one going under the head of the declarative sentence, the other of the imperative. Then the answer to our question, "Is the scheme symmetrical?" is "no."

2. Does the scheme cover all sentences?

On p. 180 of one of our *Lessons in English* I find, under the examples selected for another purpose, Whittier's lines: "For of all sad words of tongue or pen, The saddest are these: 'It might have been.'"

Does "might have been" state a fact? No. It states a past *possibility*, which has *not* become a fact, and never will become one. Neither is it interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory. The scheme has accordingly no place for it. Again, in the same book I find Shakespeare's sentence, "Then 'twere well it were done quickly." "It were well" ("twere well") does not express a fact; it expresses a *certainty of the mind with regard to an imagined case*. But for such sentences, likewise, the scheme has no place. It accordingly does *not* cover all sentences, and we must register our answer as "no."

3. Are the classes mutually exclusive?

"Let him write" or "he shall write," *scribat*, is imperative. "Shall he write?" *scribat*? is clearly interrogative. But it is also still clearly imperative. It does not cease to be imperative in becoming interrogative, any more than *scribit*, "he is writing," ceases to be indicative in becoming *scribit*? interrogative. Under which one of our four heads, then, shall we class *scribat*? "shall he write?" It will go under *two* heads, imperative and interrogative.

Then the classes are *not* mutually exclusive, and there is some serious defect in the scheme. Again, then, we must register our answer as "no."

4. Are the classes homogeneous?

The class "imperative" is of what kind? It is a *mood-class*. Are the classes interrogative and exclamatory mood-classes? No. Nobody ever put "interrogative" and "exclamatory" among the moods in writing a grammar, or ever will. These words express ideas wholly unrelated to mood, and accordingly wholly indifferent to mood. "Is he going?" "shall he go?" "would he go?" and the like, are all interrogative without regard to their mood. Then the classes "interrogative" sentences and "exclamatory" sentences are *not* of the same nature with the class "imperative" and cannot be set over against it. The scheme is drawn up on the basis of distinctions of *two kinds of ideas, having absolutely no relation to each other*—as unlike each other, to make a comparison, as sex and stature are. *And neither kind of idea is carried out.* So far as we have now progressed, the traditional scheme is as if we were to divide all mankind, not into male *and* female, nor into tall people *and* short, but into (1) *males* and (2) *tall people*. Once more, then, our answer is "no."

But the classes, on closer examination, turn out to be even more strikingly unhomogeneous than this. We have seen that one of them, the class "imperative," expresses mood, while the classes "interrogative" and "exclamatory" express something quite different from mood. But the remaining class, the "declarative" sentence, instead of doing one or the other of these things, does both. As we have already seen, our grammars say, or imply, that the declarative sentence states a fact. Then "declarative" means both *declarative* (which belongs to the same order of ideas as "interrogative") and *indicative* (which belongs to the same order of ideas as "imperative"). It really means *declarative indicative*. Our traditional scheme, accordingly, contains *three* different kinds of classes—one dealing with one kind of idea, one dealing with another kind, and one dealing with a mixture of the two. To complete our comparison, the scheme, as far as we have gone, is as if we were to divide all human beings into:

1. Tall males (sex and stature).
2. Male (sex).
3. Tall (stature).

Precisely herein lies the radical fault of the scheme. Precisely this is the cause of its failure to answer our four questions successfully. The divisions of a classification that embraces three different kinds of categories are not homogeneous, *cannot* be symmetrical, and *cannot* be mutually exclusive; nor are they likely to cover all sentences, since a complete list would have to carry out each of two different kinds of distinctions, and all possible mixtures of the two.¹

And now to solve the problem. It is obvious that we must adopt one kind of ideas *or* the other for the basis of our classification, and carry that idea out. To use our illustration again, we must either complete the categories of sex (male, female), or complete the categories of stature (tall, short, with as many gradations as may be desired, but all dealing with the same matter of stature).

To make our choice in the case before us, we must get a clear notion as to what the two kinds of ideas are. As for the mood-kind, we already recognize its essential nature. We must then fix our attention on the other kind, of which "interrogative" and "exclamatory" form classes.

Let us postpone for the moment the class *exclamatory*, and look at the class *interrogative*.

What is the opposite of interrogative? Or, to put the matter in language that any child can understand, what is the opposite of *asking*? It is *telling*.

Obviously these are the two great functions of sentences. I tell somebody else what I think or want, or I ask somebody else what he thinks or wants. Let us illustrate this.

A sentence may *tell* something. This something may be a fact, as in "he is writing," *scribit*; a demand (the *will* of the speaker), as in "let him write," *scribat*; a wish, as in "may he write," *utinam scribat*; a possibility, as in "he may write," *forsitan scribat*; a certainty in a purely imagined case, as in "he would write" or "he

¹ Aristotle reached his classification primarily from the point of view of a logician. His aim was to lay down a method by which truth might be reached. His starting-point had accordingly to be that form of sentence from which inferences could be drawn, namely, a statement of fact (the "declarative sentence," in the sense in which this phrase has thus far been used). To this, however, Aristotle added other classes, which were truly grammatical.

would have written," *scribat, scripsisset*. Each of these sentences tells the mood-idea (the attitude of mind) of the speaker or writer.

Or, again, the sentence may ask something. Thus "is he writing?" *scribit?*; "shall he write?" *scribat?*; "would he write?" "would he have written?" *scribat? scripsisset?* Each of these sentences *inquires about* the mood-idea (the attitude of mind) of the person addressed.

Now we have only to think a moment in order to realize that, whether we tell or ask, every sentence *must* contain a mood-idea, as the above examples do. You cannot make a sentence without a predication, and you cannot use a predicative verb moodlessly. But this is only a part of the whole story. It is equally obvious that you cannot present a given mood-idea (say in the matter of John's presence), without at the same time doing one of two things, conveying it as yours, or asking whether it is that of your interlocutor ("John is present," or "is John present?").

What is it that does these two different things? The *verb*, by itself, or with the help of modifiers specially attached to it, conveys the mood-idea. The sentence as a whole (1) shows the speaker's mood-idea, or (2) asks for that of the person he is talking to. That which a thing does, we call its *function*. The function of the sentence as such is, then, to present the speaker's mood-idea, or to ask for that of his interlocutor. The relation here is one of the "*first person*" to the "*second*."

But you cannot even ask another's mood-idea except by using a verb, and this in itself must inevitably carry a mood-idea. What you really do, then, in asking of another what his mood-idea is, is to *express* a mood-idea and ask if he holds it. The function of a sentence (if we for the moment postpone exclamations) is accordingly to say one of the two following things:

1. My mood-idea is *this*.
2. Is your mood-idea *this*?¹

¹ Such a question is a "yes-or-no question." There is a second kind, in which the mood-idea of the interlocutor is taken for granted, and the question is one of *detail* (as I have called it in the *Hale-Buck Latin Grammar*), as in "whom shall we send?" But it is not worth while to complicate the exposition by adding this whenever the question is spoken of.

A complete statement would also add, that, instead of speaking to another person, one may frame thought of either kind for oneself alone. But this likewise needs but a single mention.

Now for the technical names to be used for these two functions. The best name for the second, in English, is the already familiar name "interrogative." For the first, there is no good name. "Enunciative" would be quite perfect, if it didn't sound too learned. "Expositive" ("setting forth") would be perfect, but for the fact that we want, if possible, a corresponding noun and verb; and the noun "exposition" and verb "expose" would not do. "Uttering," "disclosing," "revealing," "conveying," have their individual defects; though "conveying" and "convey," like "expositive," are good in helping to explain the idea. "Declarative," which properly means simply "making clear," would have been a perfect word, if it had not been hurt by being wedded to a mood-idea, that of the indicative. But the best practical thing to do seems to be to accept it, divorcing it of all reference to mood—explaining, for example, that one can declare one's *will* or one's *wish* as well as one's perception of fact, or possibility, or certainty in an imagined case, etc. The scheme will then be:

1. *Declarative* (corresponding noun, *Declaration*).
2. *Interrogative* (corresponding noun, *Question*).

We can now decide whether we want to classify by mood-ideas or by functions of sentences. We want to do both. But we already have a classification of mood-ideas in every grammar, under its proper head of "Moods." What we want for the classification of *sentences* is a classification by functions. We have reached two functions. But these two seem already to have closed the list, in their kind; for every sentence must either convey or inquire.

There remains the class, *exclamatory*. This has been thought of as an alternative for the others, though, as the English *Report* says, "not standing on the same level of importance." On the contrary, it is of an entirely different *nature*. We have to do here, not with a mood-idea, nor with telling or asking, but with the *degree of excitation of the speaker's feeling*. Worcester's *Dictionary* admirably defines "exclamation" as "a sentence of passionate import, or passionately uttered." In English, there is one form of it (referred to in the first part of the definition) which has a special mark in the order, as well as in the punctuation. But (as the

second part of the definition implies) any sentence may be exclamatory if spoken with heightened feeling, and we accordingly often find statements of fact, commands, wishes, and even questions, with exclamation points following them. Thus, "It is better to sink than to yield!" (Longfellow); "Rouse up, Sirs!" (Browning); "Untouched with any shade of years, May those kind eyes forever dwell!" (Tennyson); "How could you ever do a thing like that!" (a *rhetorical* question, from a conversation).

The source of the existing confusion about exclamations lies in the fact that we have not used a name for the *opposite* of exclamatory. Let us, for lack of something better, use *non-exclamatory*, and define it as meaning *tranquil*, i.e., *spoken with indifferent, or moderate, or controlled feeling*. Then we shall easily recognize that any given sentence, whatever its mood may be, and whether it tells or (in form at least) asks, must inevitably either not-exclaim or exclaim. And we are ready now to see that there are necessarily *three* elements (one from each of the three groups pointed out) of entirely different nature from one another, *coexisting* in every sentence, as color, form, and weight coexist in every object. Every sentence (1) tells *or* asks (2) one *or* another mood-idea (3) with non-exclamatory *or* exclamatory feeling. So little mysterious is the solution of this problem, in which a wrong tradition has steadily ruled since three and a half centuries before Christ!

Besides its value in analysis, the solution will help the student on the practical side, in dealing with punctuation. It was *not* practical to leave him without a means of explaining what he repeatedly encounters, the exclamation point after a declarative indicative sentence, an imperative sentence, etc., etc.

The recognition of the constant antithesis of the functions *declarative* and *interrogative* is also of great help in teaching. For any kind of a mood-idea except one¹, we have a *pair* of ways in which it may be put. Thus we may have a declaration of will, or a question of will ("let us go," *eamus*, "shall we go?" *eamus?*); a declaration of fact, or a question of fact; a declaration of possibility, or a question of possibility; a declaration of certainty in

¹ This one idea is that of wish. A wish can be put interrogatively only through a periphrasis, as in "do you wish that he may survive you?"

an imagined case, or a question of certainty in an imagined case, etc. The facts are as familiar as getting up and going to bed, and much more frequent. And the statement should be in every grammar.

As for the general classification of clauses, no one but myself, so far as I know, has attempted, or even suggested, a division upon a basis corresponding to that of the classification of sentences. Yet it is most unlikely that the general forms of presenting thought would be changed by the act of subordinating one sentence grammatically to another. We may then reasonably hope to find the leading functions of independent sentences preserved in clauses. And this we do. A clause may *convey* (thus an idea of fact, an idea of purpose, etc.),¹ or it may *inquire* (thus in the indirect question, of many different kinds). But there is also one other function. There are clauses which neither *tell* a mood-idea nor *inquire* about a mood-idea, but *assume* one. Thus in "if I killed him, I killed him with good reason; but I didn't kill him" (Quintilian, 4, 5, 13), the clause "if I killed him" neither tells that I killed him nor asks whether I killed him, but *assumes* the killing, in order to tie something else with it (the conclusion) as inseparable from it. The case would be the same, again, in "if I should kill him, I should kill him with good reason." Our third function of clauses is thus to assume. There are no others. When then we come, in advanced teaching, to the classification of clauses, it will be into—

1. Declarative (corresponding noun, Declaration).
2. Interrogative (corresponding noun, Question).
3. Assumptive (corresponding noun, Assumption).

The condition (*if*-clause) is only one form of assumption. The other is expressed by the help of a general relative of any kind. Thus if I say "the man who wrongs another hurts himself," the clause "the man who wrongs another" does not state that any particular person does this, but merely *assumes* a case. The meaning is the same as in "*if* any man wrongs another."

Clauses are occasionally exclamatory, mostly when they are

¹ In dependent clauses, of course, that which is made known ("declared") may be the purpose, the reason, etc., of a third party or parties. The same may be the case with the question. But this does not invalidate our terms.

echoes of a more ordinary use. An example of the detached type is "If only I had known ten years ago!" An example of a type arising in echoing what another has said, is seen in the second part of "Tell me what he did." "What he did! What *didn't* he do!" So, also, single words or phrases may be exclamatory, and receive the point, even in the midst of a sentence.

Finally, it may be pointed out that independent sentences are often, though declarative or interrogative in form, really assumptive in effect. Thus in "somebody says 'no,' so do I; somebody says 'yes,' so do I." It seems to me, then, to be a convenient summing-up of the sum total of functions of sentences and clauses to say, in advanced teaching, that:

Sentences and clauses may be:

1. Declarative (telling).
2. Interrogative (asking).
3. Assumptive (supposing).

One formula in particular is often of especial value. Since the indicative is the mood of fact, and since to declare a fact is to make a *statement*, one may say that the indicative is used in *statements* of fact, *inquiries* after facts, and *assumptions* of fact; or, more briefly, that it is used to *state* a fact, *inquire* after a fact, or *assume* a fact.¹

The whole matter of the classification of clauses in English is one of theoretical consequence only, since the question of the mood is not affected by the choice of the declarative, interrogative, or assumptive form of presentation. In a brief later paper, I hope to show the important practical bearing of the classification upon precisely this question of mood, in Romance, Latin, and Greek.

¹ This formula, which I have found helpful in my teaching in Chicago and at Cornell University (it simplifies the uses of an important mood by reducing them to a few general functions), has found favor, and has already passed into three of our Latin grammars; though in all of these it accompanies the traditional classification of sentences, instead of having suggested a reform in that classification.

I may add that the substance of the exposition now completed was given in a paper (printed afterward for local use) before the Sixteenth Conference of Academies and High Schools held at the University of Chicago in November, 1902, and the results are also incorporated in the Hale-Buck *Latin Grammar*, 1903, and will appear in abstract in the *Proceedings of the American Philological Association* for the current year. But I taught the same doctrine many years before coming to Chicago.

REPORT OF THE TWENTY-FIFTH EDUCATIONAL
CONFERENCE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN RELATIONS WITH THE UNIVERSITY
OF CHICAGO¹

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The twenty-fifth annual conference of the University with co-operating secondary schools was held on Friday and Saturday, April 18 and 19, 1913. Reports from those who were most intimately related to its various departments give the impression that this was distinctly the most successful meeting of this sort within the history of the University. This result may be attributed in part to the general interest aroused by the topic announced for the general sessions and the departmental conferences, namely: Economy in Education; and in still greater part by the co-operation of a large number of people, including both officers of the University and high-school superintendents, principals, and departmental instructors.

The main features of the Conference as a whole consisted of (1) the departmental conferences of Friday afternoon, (2) the honor examinations of high-school students, held also on Friday afternoon, (3) the contests for high-school students in reading and in effective speaking held on Friday evening, (4) the general session of the Conference Saturday afternoon, and (5) the Conference luncheon for executive officers of the University and secondary schools on Saturday afternoon. To these features should be added the luncheon given by the University to the visiting high-school pupils and officers in the Hutchinson Commons Friday noon, the supper for high-school girls at Lexington, for the boys at Hutchinson, and for high-school officers at Emmons Blaine Hall. The number of high-school pupils present at the Friday luncheon

¹Some of the papers given at the Conference will be printed in full in the fall numbers of the *School Review*.

exceeded the attendance of the last year by more than 125, and as these were present to attend the contests and examinations, it is obvious what this meant for the afternoon and evening occasions. The departmental conferences occupied almost every classroom and auditorium in the quadrangles, and nearly every conference reports a record-breaking attendance. The discussions both in the departmental conferences and in the more general public sessions were regarded as making distinct contributions to the solution of some questions just now uppermost in the minds of college and secondary-school people.

The University Examiner reports that—

Examinations were held Friday afternoon in German, American History, French, Mathematics, Physics, English, and Latin. To these examinations only students from the current Senior classes of co-operating high schools were admitted. To the winner of each examination is awarded a scholarship in the University amounting to full tuition for the next college year. The total number of students competing in the examinations was 251: 39 in German, 25 in American History, 11 in French, 61 in Mathematics, 14 in Physics, 64 in English, and 37 in Latin. Likewise two scholarships were awarded on the basis of contests conducted by the Public Speaking Department. One was a reading contest in which there were entered 29 students, the other a contest in effective speaking in which 44 students competed, a total of 73. In the effective speaking contest each school was represented by a team of two. Preliminary tryouts were held during the afternoon and the final contests were held in the evening. The scholarship in the reading contest was won by Sol Gluckstone of the East Division High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and the scholarship in the effective speaking contest was won by Medard Welch of the Lane Technical High School, Chicago.

The following paragraphs present condensed reports of the departmental sessions of Friday afternoon, which reports were given at the Saturday morning session. The topic common to all these sessions was "Economy in Education."

Biology—

Chairman, OTIS W. CALDWELL, University of Chicago.

Secretary, H. B. SHINN, Carl Schurz High School, Chicago.

Attendance 55

The chairman stated that in a fairly typical botany class of college Freshmen, fully one-third of the students had had botany in the high school, yet no account of this fact was made in grouping the class or assigning the work. This fact was

further emphasized by Mr. Eikenberry in the results given of a questionnaire conducted through some eighteen colleges and universities of the Middle West. Of these institutions 72 per cent assign students prepared in biology to classes with students unprepared; 90 per cent of the schools fail to recognize any duplication of the work. In no case is any recognition given for one-half year courses. The conclusion is thus apparent that the college expects nothing of the high-school preparation; a later speaker restated this by saying that while there is articulation between the grammar and the high schools and between the Junior and Senior colleges, there is no such smoothness of junction between the college and the high school. Mr. Eikenberry further pointed out that some inequality exists inasmuch as in almost every other subject the college work in that subject begins where the high-school work leaves off. No solution of the problem was suggested.

In speaking of the topic of repetition and duplication, Dr. Galloway emphasized Mr. Eikenberry's conclusion, that owing to differences in equipment, time given, and methods of teaching, there is little or no duplication of work, hence that there is little or no waste on the student's or the instructor's part.

A very strong plea was made by Dr. Galloway for freedom in formulating the college course and for freedom on the high-school teacher's part in teaching the secondary course. In each case local or temporal conditions should largely determine what and how to teach, neither the high school nor the college being absolutely standardized.

In opening the general discussion, Mr. J. I. Thalman held that in most cases it is only tradition that restrains the college from admitting previously prepared students to second-year classes. In order to obviate this difficulty and that of repetition, he suggested two possibilities: first, that where the subject is repeated in college, it be done with new types or forms; second, that the high-school work be given in the second year.

Mr. T. L. Hotzman concluded that the high school is immediately and the college ultimately to blame for such repetition; that the college does not prepare its students to teach a high-school course, but rather one of intense morphology; that the high school should not give work on algae and similar plant forms, for instance, but that it should be more concerned with larger matters of plant growth and habit; and that a zoölogy course should emphasize vertebrates, mollusks, and insects.

Dr. Strong maintained that repetition is really beneficial; Dr. Newman, that there should be college courses in botany and zoölogy on the methods of teaching and that the higher institution should give essential principles, the lower, more nature study; Principal Armstrong, that the high-school course should be laid out more carefully with better correlation of subjects, that there should be various botanical and zoölogical courses offered for variously constituted classes, and that less thoroughness of treatment should be expected of secondary pupils; Mr. Clute, that there should be more nature-study. Pleas for better teaching of physiology were made by Professor Lindle and Mr. Carlson.

If one were to state two general conclusions from the lengthy and spirited discussion, they would probably be that the high-school courses in botany and zoölogy should be greatly altered, and that the high-school teachers need a different point of view.

Earth Science—

Chairman, ROLLIN D. SALISBURY, University of Chicago.

Secretary, WALTER S. TOWER, University of Chicago.

Attendance 75

The first question considered was: "Can repetition be avoided in the subject-matter of courses in geography and geology?" An affirmative answer was given both in the papers by Mr. James H. Smith, of Austin High School, and Professor Atwood, of the University of Chicago, and in the informal discussion which followed these papers. It appeared to be commonly agreed, however, that such avoidance of repetition would afford time for strengthening the courses concerned rather than permit time to be taken from those courses and devoted to other things.

The second question considered was: "Can secondary-school courses in physiography and commercial geography be made the equivalent of the elementary courses in these subjects in college, so that the student who has had either of them in an approved secondary school can pass at once to the next higher related course in college?"

Mr. Miller, of the University High School, pointed out that any answer to this question must take account of varying factors from school to school, as age of students when the course in question is taken, ability of the teacher, school equipment, and so on. Co-operation between schools and colleges in regard to arrangements of the high-school studies might solve all the problems, except perhaps the one arising from varying abilities of the teachers. Mr. Miller suggested a plan of taking high-school courses as the equivalent of elementary college work in cases of *individuals*, rather than by institutions or by classes.

Mr. Whitbeck presented statistics in regard to instruction in geography in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Indiana, and Ohio, which indicated that geography and physiography are commonly taught by persons without any special training in those lines.

Following this, statistics of grades attained by students in the elementary courses in the University of Wisconsin were presented.

In a class of 120 students, 20 had had one year of high-school work in the subject, average grade of the group 80.4 per cent; 66 had had one half-year in the high-school subject, average grade of that group 81.2 per cent; 34 had had no high-school course in geography, average grade of that group 80.8 per cent, or higher than those who had studied the subject for a full year in the high school.

The conclusion seemed to be that high-school work in geography and physiography does not help the student any when he pursues the college course.

The third question considered was: "Are there topics of relatively slight value in geography and geology which commonly receive an undue amount of time and attention in high-school and college courses? If so, is it not desirable to eliminate such topics or to curtail this discussion, so as to (1) shorten the course, thus saving time for the student, or (2) gain time for more important matters?"

In the absence of Mr. Pierson, Professor Barrows, of the University of Chicago, read the only paper on this subject. His paper and the discussion following indicated a consensus of opinion on the affirmative side, but with the idea of gaining time for more important matters, as the chief object to be sought.

At the close of the conference it was moved to direct the chairman to appoint a committee, which should be resolved into three subcommittees to investigate further the questions here discussed and to report their findings at the next annual conference.

English—

Chairman, HIRAM B. LOOMIS, Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary, L. W. SMITH, Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Ill.

Attendance 125

The paper by Mr. H. V. Church, Principal of J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois, on "Use of Scientific and Industrial Material as a Part of the Course in English in the High School" was read by a member of the faculty of that school. From the point of view of the Conference the most significant point of the paper was the fact that the fourth-year work in English is given only to pupils who do not expect to go to college. This fourth-year work consists in the history of English literature together with the use of such classics as will best illustrate the types of literature touched upon in this historical review. The idea in this method of treatment is that pupils who do not go to college should have this more or less technical treatment of the history of literature while those who do go to college had best reserve their study of the subject for college where it can be done more satisfactorily. This plan seems to result in a distinct economy in the high-school course in English.

The title of the second paper was "Repetition and Duplication in School and College Work," by Miss Alice Bidwell, Freeport, Illinois. Miss Bidwell had made a careful study of the courses of English in the various high schools to discover, if possible, if there is a duplication of work in the high school and college. It was found that many schools do work of a technical nature which should be reserved for college treatment. In some places the classic *Beowulf* is given in the high school; in others the subject of the drama is studied in a very technical and exhaustive manner. This represents distinct waste, since this type of work can better be done in college and since high-school pupils have not reached the stage of development where they can approach it with any degree of appreciation.

The third topic was "An Experiment in the Teaching of Freshman Literature," treated by Professor Boynton of the University of Chicago. The position

was taken in this paper that although many of the same topics in literature and composition are treated both in high school and college, this duplication in subject-matter does not always represent waste. In college the pupil approaches the subject from a new point of view by a different method and from the standpoint of greater maturity.

No resolutions were passed by the conference to gather up the results of the discussion into definite proposals, yet the above seemed to stand out clearly as the net result of the conference.

French—

Chairman, WM. A. NITZE, University of Chicago.

Secretary, ELIZABETH WALLACE, University of Chicago.

Attendance 42

Mr. Babcock read a paper on the topic: "Is the Use of Phonetics an Economy in Teaching Elementary French?" The speaker strongly advocated the use of phonetics in the classroom from the beginning, maintaining:

1. That the old way of teaching does not give satisfactory results—while the phonetic method gives accuracy, is an economy of time, develops mental power and vigor and incidentally prepares a pupil for reformed spelling.

The discussion was opened by Mlle. Favart of the Hyde Park High School and was participated in by six others. All advocated the use of a phonetic system but differed widely as to the system. The next subject, "In What Respects Is Elementary and Intermediate French a High-School Subject?" was treated in a paper by Mrs. Lockwood of the Wendell Phillips High School.

The discussion was opened by Miss Angus of the University High School. It was brought out that the greatest weakness in the teaching of French was the lack of uniformity in the results, brought out by the diversity of methods, that if this diversity could be modified so that results could be uniform and determinable the elementary and intermediate French might eventually become exclusively an elementary and secondary school subject.

It was moved that a committee be appointed by the chair, composed of members of the Romance Department of the University and of teachers from affiliated secondary schools, for the purpose of considering unified teaching.

German—

Chairman, MISS JOSEPHINE DONIAT, Carl Schurz High School, Chicago.

Secretary, MISS LYDIA SCHMIDT, University High School.

Attendance 75

The committee of high-school teachers appointed to arrange a program for the departmental conference in German prepared a syllabus for a three years' course in German, and sent this to all of the prominent high schools within a radius of 150-200 miles from Chicago. In general the committee recommended that less than heretofore be attempted in a three years' course in German, but that the work undertaken be done more thoroughly. The study of the

classics and the formal study of literature were therefore not included in the course outlined.

The conference was opened by Mr. Charles Goettsch of the University of Chicago, chairman of the Syllabus Committee, who, in his suggestions for bringing about economy of the pupil's time and effort, dwelt on the importance of the proper selection of a text and emphasized the necessity for clearness and simplicity in the presentation of the material. He urged that the recitation period be made not so much an occasion for finding out what the pupil has prepared at home but that it should rather be an occasion for developing new material with a view to reducing the home work as much as possible. He also spoke of the importance of putting the beginning classes into the hands of strong teachers.

Mr. Schacht, of the Wendell Phillips High School, in opening the discussion of the first year's work, spoke of the difficulties and waste involved in teaching classes composed of a mixture of pupils from the Freshman, Sophomore, and Junior classes. He also emphasized the desirability of putting beginning classes in the hands of experienced teachers, inasmuch as a good foundation is indispensable for satisfactory work in the later years.

Miss Hochbaum led in the discussion of the work of the second year.

Mrs. Worden discussing the third-year work commented briefly on the syllabus and advocated a reduction in the amount of work required of the teachers of German so that the total number of hours required should not exceed that of the teachers in other departments.

In the discussion which followed these papers the general opinion seemed to be that the committee had included more work in grammar in the first two years than could be done thoroughly.

A discussion arose regarding the best method of developing the pupils' ability to speak German. Professor Cutting of the University effectively answered the question by stating that the German used in connection with the grammar work and in the conversation and discussions connected with the texts read offered the only opportunity worth considering in drill work of this kind. It was further pointed out that the aim in the conversational work should be a reasonable one and that the use of simple sentences only should be insisted upon.

The teachers were much in sympathy with the proposal of the committee that less be undertaken but that thoroughness be insisted upon. The prevailing opinion was that considerable reading of medium difficulty should be the aim of the course rather than a more limited amount of difficult reading.

A resolution was passed that in the opinion of the teachers present the syllabus presented by the committee could be a great help in planning the high-school course in German. It was decided however to postpone the study of the relative pronoun to the second year and the study of the passive voice, subjunctive of indirect discourse and unreal condition, to the third year.

The committee presented a syllabus¹ of minimum requirements, which, while retaining desirable flexibility, would, if generally adopted, bring about greater

¹ This syllabus will be printed in full in a later issue of the *Review*.

unification of the work in our secondary schools and eliminate much of the present wastage between successive courses, teachers, and institutions.

Greek and Latin—

Chairman, ROBERT J. BONNER, University of Chicago.

Secretary, WILBERT L. CARR, University High School.

Attendance 75

Two reports were made; one by a committee appointed last year on the minimum requirements in form and syntax for the high-school course in Latin; the other by a committee from the Latin section of the Chicago high-school teachers' organization, on a broader and more attractive Latin course for high schools.

The first report, read by the chairman, Miss Frances Sabin, of Oak Park High School, after considerable discussion, was referred back to the committee, final action being deferred until next year.

The second report, presented in printed form by Mr. H. H. Matteson, of the Waller High School, recommended for the second, third, and fourth years' reading a wide variety of authors, to be used as substitutes for all or a part of the traditional requirements in Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil. A large list of supplemental texts, many of them costing only thirty-five or forty cents, was included in the report, and combinations suggested for each year's work. After some discussion, on motion by Professor Hale, the section voted its satisfaction with the report and expressed the hope that the suggestions made in the report might be adopted.

Mr. H. F. Scott, of the University High School, discussed and demonstrated the use of perception cards on which were printed vocabulary and inflectional forms. Some advantages gained are speed and accuracy on the part of the pupils.

History—

Chairman, MARCUS W. JERNEGAN, University of Chicago.

Secretary, ARTHUR F. BARNARD, University High School.

Attendance 50

The question "Is There Duplication of High-School Work in History in the First Year of the Junior College?" was discussed from the standpoint of the college by Mr. A. E. Harvey of the University of Chicago.

Mr. Harvey's main points were as follows: There are roughly three types of high-school courses in history; 1, those offering a one-year course in ancient history; 2, those offering a four-year sequence, i.e., ancient, mediaeval, modern, English, and American history in conformity with the recommendations of the committee of seven; 3, those offering a three-year sequence, i.e., ancient and mediaeval, modern European, American history in accordance with the more recent report of the committee of five.

The speaker considered the question of duplication from the standpoint of material, method, and emphasis. As regards material, the junior-college course covers the same ground as the course in mediaeval and modern history in the

high schools of class 2. In this instance there is duplication of subject-matter to a greater or less degree according to the tastes and preferences of the individual instructors. In the high schools of class 3 the duplication of subject-matter is negligible, as the emphasis is placed on English history in the high school and on continental conditions in the college.

In method, according to the speaker, there is a wide difference between the work of the high school and that of the college. In the former the textbook-recitation method is used almost universally and there is little note-taking. In the latter the lecture-recitation method is employed and the student is trained to take notes. The whole work is on a higher plane.

There is also a difference in emphasis. In the high school the emphasis is on facts rather than events, the "what" rather than the "why." In the college the judgment is cultivated by the weighing of evidence, and the scientific habit of mind by the study of cause and effect.

Thus it seems that the duplication is confined to subject-matter. The speaker voiced the opinion that duplication was not undesirable in view of the well-known complexity of European history. In the statistics collected by Mr. Harvey only 15 out of 88 students in the junior college believed that they should have taken more advanced work; 59 out of 88 were of opinion that the courses differed essentially in subject-matter, and 82 out of 88 that they differed essentially in method.

The question was considered from the standpoint of the high school by Mr. Parker of the Quincy High School. The aims of the teacher are, first to cultivate the memory, imagination, but more particularly the judgment and reasoning power; second to cultivate a taste for historical reading that will last through life; third to give the student a broad grasp of the developments of modern history; fourth to enable the student to understand better the world in which he lives.

As to methods, the up-to-date teacher shows his students how to study history by building up systems of relationships and thus actually organizing the historical material. In giving out a lesson he is not satisfied with a page assignment, but shows the pupil the inner anatomy of the lesson, that each paragraph is a unit and must be mastered as an organic whole, and that there is likewise a thread of unity connecting the paragraphs of the lesson; further, that the great unifying idea of the lesson may be considered as the effect of a precedent cause, and the cause likewise of some as yet unconsidered effect. In the recitation the student is given freedom of thought and expression but always under the guidance of the teacher.

As to material, the textbook is used in preference to the syllabus. A certain amount of collateral reading is demanded.

The papers were discussed by Miss King of Oak Park, Miss Durbin of Englewood, and Miss Osgood of the Faulkner School. A brief general discussion followed. There seemed to be general agreement to the effect that except for

unusual students and the best high schools there is little duplication under present conditions.

The conference adopted the following resolutions: "That it is desirable for the average pupil who has taken European history in the high school to repeat it in college; that some administrative device be adopted by which the exceptional student may be excused from such course or courses."

Home Economics—

Chairman, DEAN MARION TALBOT, University of Chicago.

Secretary, MISS MILDRED WEIGLEY, DeKalb High School.

Attendance 60

The conference was opened with a paper by Miss Jenny H. Snow of Chicago Normal College on "The Part of the High School."

Miss Snow's paper suggested that the mass of material, unclassified and unorganized, relating to home economics which has come in as a result of scientific research, forces upon the high school, not so much the problem of *what* we are to teach, as *how* we are to present material. In order to determine this, the motive in high-school home-economics work must be considered.

Inasmuch as this subject is being taught largely because of its direct influence on the home, Miss Snow believes that the work should be given from the economic rather than from the scientific point of view, not with any idea of eliminating the scientific principles which underlie so much of the home-economics work, but rather with that of emphasizing the economic. Science courses, it is thought, should not be required as a prerequisite for home economics but through home economics the girls should be led into organized science work thus giving science a meaning to the girls.

The discussion that followed concerned itself largely with the following problems: First, the relation of the science to the courses in home economics. Shall we ask for more science work as preliminary to home economics or may we legitimately carry it on without this science work? While opinions on this were not unanimous, the majority felt that the home-economics work in the first years, leading the girl into the science later, was preferable to requiring prerequisites of science.

Second, the planning of courses that shall be suitable for high-school students rather than the attempted use of what is really college work.

Last, the desirability of a general science course to be given in the first year of the high school.

At the close of the discussion it was resolved:

1. "That there is need of more definite formulation of high-school courses in the belief that if the need of the high-school girl is really met there will be no duplication in college."

2. "That a general science course in the first year of high school is desirable for students of home economics."

3. "That in view of the changing conditions the economic, social, and civic aspects of household life be emphasized, especially the economics of consumption."

Manual Arts—

Chairman, FRANK M. LEAVITT, University of Chicago.

Secretary, WILSON H. HENDERSON, Hammond, Indiana.

Attendance 50

The topic discussed in the manual-arts section of the Conference was the articulation of high-school manual-arts courses with general college work.

In all of the papers, and in the ensuing discussion it was noted that such courses undoubtedly contribute greatly to the success of the rest of the high-school work and to the subsequent life-work of a large number of pupils, whether they attend college or not. It was maintained that these more general values outweigh the specific value of the manual arts as college-preparatory subjects and amply justify the high school in administering manual-training courses in any event.

In the discussion of the narrower question, the value of manual training as a college-preparatory subject, the objections of the technical universities to giving credit for high-school manual-training and drawing were taken up in considerable detail and the position of such objectors shown to be untenable, and it was made evident that the attitude of several technical colleges is distinctly less liberal than many general and classical colleges.

The following quotation from one of the papers well expresses the evident opinion of those present regarding this matter of articulation: "If in order rightly to connect with college it is necessary that there be continuity of work, the same courses of instruction carried on in unbroken line, then there is no hope at present for pupils of manual-arts courses except in a very few strictly technical colleges. Two roads may join, however, without going in the same direction. All that is necessary is that a traveler may pass from one to the other without inconvenience. We maintain that if a pupil on leaving a manual-arts course is prepared to carry successfully the work of a given college, he is ready for that college. We hold that if a pupil, who has finished a four years' high-school course, has the ability to do Freshman work in college, he ought to be given credit for all of that high-school course, whether classical or manual arts."

This whole discussion emphasized the desirability of authentic information regarding the degree of success attained in junior-college work by students entering the University with liberal entrance credit for manual training and drawing.

Perhaps the most significant point made, so far as the University of Chicago is concerned, was that relating to the preparation of teachers of manual and industrial training. It was shown that one reason why manual training does not articulate better with college work is because of the difficulty of securing manual-training teachers who have any acquaintance with the higher institutions. It was shown that it is practically impossible to find any considerable number of men who will give four years to college preparation, unless in these four years

they can secure a liberal amount of necessary technique; that is to say, an amount enabling them to teach successfully in high schools.

Another quotation from one of the papers is as follows: "Now if colleges and universities are really interested in helping solve high-school difficulties, here is one to try their mettle. There is a most urgent demand all over our country for trained vocational teachers. I know of no profession in which the demand so far exceeds the supply. Let the colleges and universities establish courses for teachers, to which actual tradesmen may be admitted. In Indiana our recent law provides that up to 1915, schools may employ as teachers, without examination, skilled workmen regardless of scholastic attainments. We would really prefer that these men and women have training added, but where is the course for teachers to which the fact that they are skilled artisans admits them? These men and women direct from the trades have narrowly specialized training and they are called upon to teach more broadly than they have practiced. Such a teachers' course in a university as suggested would add the needed breadth. I understand the University of Wisconsin is beginning a work of this kind." Subsequently the plans of the University of Wisconsin for carrying on this work were discussed.

At the close of the meeting the following resolutions were adopted as covering the major considerations of the conference:

"WHEREAS, The major purpose of instruction in the manual arts in the high school is to contribute directly to the vocational efficiency of the pupils, and

"WHEREAS, It is still a debatable question whether manual training in the high school will contribute materially to the subsequent success of an individual, as a student in the universities other than technical, and

"WHEREAS, No one seems to doubt the value of such training for *success in life* after or without college training and experience, and

"WHEREAS, The University of Chicago has already recognized this general value of manual training in the high school, and gives liberal entrance credit for such work, and the University, therefore, is in a peculiarly advantageous position to collect data on the above mentioned debatable question, therefore

"Be it resolved: That we earnestly request the University of Chicago to investigate the matter for the purpose of throwing such light on the question as a study of the records may reveal."

Mathematics—

Chairman, H. E. SLAUGHT, University of Chicago.

Secretary, BEULA SHOESMITH, Hyde Park High School, Chicago.

Attendance 85

Harry O. Gillet of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, presented the subject, "Economies in the Course in Mathematics," from the standpoint of the elementary school, showing how one year had been saved without loss of efficiency, with the result that pupils from the seventh grade are this year prepared to enter high school. This result has been accomplished after two years' experiment in the University Elementary School by avoiding unnecessary repetition, stimulating active thinking, and organizing the course of study on a psychological basis.

Frank O. Hester of Lane Technical High School, Chicago, considered the topic from the standpoint of the high school, suggesting that waste of time might be avoided and efficiency increased by eliminating certain topics in secondary mathematics, by shortening the time spent on drill, and by treating mathematics as a unified subject rather than several separate subjects, thus utilizing cross applications in algebra, geometry, and trigonometry.

H. E. Cobb of Lewis Institute, Chicago, discussed the subject in connection with the work of the junior college, showing how from one to two years can be saved by studying recent developments and modifying the course in accordance with the real needs of the student. Time should be saved for the student who enters the vocations before finishing the college course as well as for those who complete the course. This might be accomplished by replacing abstract work by practical problems and by making the conditions in school like those without. The question of waste here is one which concerns the individual teacher as well as the administrative officers.

Among those who contributed to the general discussion which followed were Mr. McGuane, Miss Henry, Miss Mable Sykes, Mr. Morgan, Mr. Donecker, Mr. Connor, and Miss Jaynes of the Chicago schools, Mr. Walter Slocum, principal of the Carl Schurz High School, Mr. Erwin of the Joliet Township High School, and Professor Wilczynski of the University of Chicago. The following resolutions were passed:

"Resolved, That the Mathematics Conference use its influence to increase the time for all high-school mathematics from four periods a week to five.

"Resolved, That this conference go on record as recommending greater departmental activity in the way of conferences among mathematics teachers."

Physics and Chemistry—

Chairman, C. R. MANN, University of Chicago.

Secretary, E. S. BISHOP, University High School.

Attendance 40

Mr. W. H. Courson, of the Anderson, Indiana, High School, in a paper entitled, "Wastage in High-School Physics and Chemistry," pointed out that only 2 per cent of high-school graduates go to college, and that the greatest wastage in the present practice of physics teaching is in teaching courses which prepare for college, rather than adapting the course to the local needs of the community. He partially indicated how this end might be accomplished in rural communities by teaching the application of physics to farm machinery and the soil. He also drew attention to the wastage in time and effort resulting from girls taking the usual courses in physics and chemistry, rather than courses the applications of which should be taken from the physics and chemistry of the household.

Mr. B. W. Kelly, of Richmond, Indiana, showed how the teacher could prevent wastage of time by a better organization of the course in both the lecture-table demonstrations and the laboratory work. He presented a carefully thought-out method of handling the laboratory notes. He drew attention to the necessity

of teaching algebra and arithmetic with a slight physics flavor, by using other letters than x , y , and z to denote unknown quantities, and by teaching mensuration and decimal fractions.

Mr. Hermann Schlesinger of the Department of Chemistry, University of Chicago, in discussing the "Co-ordination of High-School and College Chemistry" showed how the University is attempting to correlate the two but that in so doing a certain wastage of time resulted for students entering the University with high-school chemistry. These students complete the general course in chemistry in the University in two quarters, whereas those entering without chemistry require three quarters. Thus in the former case about 300 hours is spent on general chemistry, 120 in the University and 180 in the High School, whereas if all the general chemistry is taken in the University 180 hours is required, a saving of 120 hours. He also showed that, if we consider one hour in the University at their advanced stage of maturity worth two hours in the high school, the wastage in time for those entering with chemistry would be only 30 hours. Mr. Schlesinger then very forcibly pointed out the cause of the inability of the University further to correlate its course in general chemistry with high-school chemistry as being due to the student's lack of independence, responsibility, and intellectual maturity. He attributed this lack of independence to the American attitude toward our children, the tendency to make things too easy for them. We do not encourage them to fight out their own difficulties. We direct and help them too much so that they never acquire the habits of independent thought.

The Program Committee for the Conference of 1914 is constituted as follows: *Chairman*, Spencer R. Smith, Principal, Wendell Phillips High School, Chicago; *High-School Representatives*: Superintendent Sandwick, Deerfield Township; Superintendent Wirt, Gary, Indiana; Miss Frances Sabin, High School, Oak Park; *University Representatives*: Professors Judd, Mann, and Goettsch.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

SOCIETY OF COLLEGE TEACHERS OF EDUCATION

Since the last announcement, the following new members have been added to the Society:

- Bonham, Milledge G., Associate Professor of Education, University of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, La.
Book, W. F., Professor of Educational Psychology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
Burnham, W. H., Professor of Pedagogy and School Hygiene, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
Carter, Alexander, Secretary College Teachers of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
Coleman, H. T. J., Associate Professor of Education, Toronto University, Toronto, Canada.
Davidson, Percy F., Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford, Cal.
Gambrell, Bessie E., Professor of Education, Alfred University, Alfred, N.Y.
Inglis, Alexander J., Professor of Education, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N.J.
Jones, A. J., Professor of Education, University of Maine, Orono, Me.
Pakenham, William, Professor of History of Education, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.
Rhoton, A. L., Professor of Education, Georgetown College, Georgetown, Ky.
Robertson, C. B., Professor of Secondary Education and Supervision, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Smith, H. L., Professor of School Administration, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
Storm, A. V., Professor of Agricultural Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Updegraf, Harlan, Professor of Educational Administration, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
Weber, S. E., Professor of Education, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
Williams, Henry G., Dean of the State Normal College, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

AN INTRODUCTORY VIEW OF GREEK

Inspired by a suggestion in the *School Review* for January, I am experimenting with Greek in my Cicero class. I began February 26

by putting the Greek alphabet on the board. Thanks to the Greek-letter fraternities, to which this at least may be credited in a Greekless generation, the pupils recognized about half the letters at once. They were left on the blackboard and on the third day the class could read them all, less than five minutes a day having been spent on them. Then I wrote the first line of the *Iliad* with its translation, and spent perhaps ten minutes pronouncing and explaining the words, calling attention to Latin and English derivatives or associated words and to similarities with Latin forms and constructions. Every day or two I took a few minutes to have the line read in concert or by individuals, saying that some day I should ask them to write it from memory.

Giving a Cicero test on the eighth of March, I asked the class to write this line as well as possible, trying to remember all the accents and breathings. The result was surprisingly satisfactory. I then presented the second line, and, on March 19, the third line in the same way. On April 9, after a ten days' vacation, I called for the three lines together. In almost all cases the words were given correctly, but there was considerable confusion over accents and breathings, so I said I would ask them to study it for the next day, and to be able to write it with entire accuracy. This is the only time I have assigned work outside of class.

From these three lines the class has learned the nominative, accusative, and vocative singular, and the accusative plural of the first declension; the dative and accusative plural of the second; and one form of the accusative singular of the third. They have also been introduced to the connection between Greek and English in such words as mania, ode, theology, myriad, theme, epithet, hypothesis, parenthesis, polygon, and similar compounds, psychology and project. I plan to teach the first seven lines of the *Iliad* in this way, and then probably the first ten lines of the *Odyssey*. At present I am feeling my way along without very definite plans, but it seems to me that, having learned nineteen lines of Homer by heart, next year they will be able to enjoy parallel passages in the *Aeneid* and the *Odyssey*, and to read some episode, perhaps that of Nausicaa, without entrenching unduly on the required work in Latin.

This method will not, of course, lead to a very exhaustive knowledge of Greek, but I am inclined to think that it will have considerable linguistic value and give not a little pleasure. At present the class seems to be enjoying the experiment as much as I am, and several have asked if I will not have a regular Greek class next year. Their enthusiasm is due in part, doubtless, to the novelty; in part, perhaps, to the fact

that most of the class was with me last year, and I have systematically seized every opportunity to tell them about Greek, to give them glimpses of its charms, and to make them realize that they were missing a great pleasure in not being able to study it.

ELSIE GARLAND HOBSON

Frances Shimer School

STATISTICS ON HIGH-SCHOOL FAILURES AND WITHDRAWALS

A group of high-school principals representing about fifteen schools in the immediate vicinity of Chicago meets once a month to discuss problems of high-school administration. Among the topics which this club has found it profitable to discuss is the number of withdrawals and failures in high-school courses. The following general table (p. 415) is made up on the basis of thirteen detailed reports.

The figures given for withdrawals include all who left the course before the examination. Some withdrew for the reason that they were failing, but these were not separated from those who withdrew for reasons unrelated to their scholarship. The significance of withdrawals, as compared with failures, comes out in the comparison of different classes. Thus compare English I with Latin I. In many cases the students in English remain in the course and fail rather than withdraw. This is doubtless due in part to the fact that English is required of all students. In Latin, on the other hand, students withdraw after they have tried the course for a short time. The percentage of withdrawals is accordingly greater than the percentage of failures. There is a very surprising percentage of withdrawals in manual training.

The table suggests the desirability of comparative material of this type from a large number of schools.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE COMMITTEE

The sixth conference of the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools was held at the rooms of the Carnegie Foundation, 576 Fifth Ave., New York, N.Y., on Wednesday, February 19, 1913. Delegates were present, representing the College Entrance Examination Board, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the Bureau of Education.

	No. Pupils Enrolled	No. Pupils Withdrawn	No. Pupils Failed	Percentage Withdrawn	Percentage Failed	Total Loss
English I.....	1,075	98	109	9.1	9.4	18.5
English II.....	723	57	63	7.9	8.7	16.6
English III.....	627	41	49	6.5	7.8	14.3
English IV.....	422	28	20	6.6	4.7	11.3
Total.....	2,847	224	241	7.9	8.5	16.4
Algebra I.....	914	118	157	12.9	17.2	30.1
Algebra II.....	386	54	44	14.0	11.4	25.4
Plane geometry.....	397	61	74	15.4	18.6	34.0
Solid geometry.....	74	7	4	9.5	5.4	14.9
Trigonometry.....	73	7	3	9.6	4.1	13.7
Latin I.....	660	98	71	14.9	10.8	25.7
Latin II.....	470	34	51	7.2	10.9	18.1
Latin III.....	188	10	7	5.3	3.7	9.0
Latin IV.....	82	1	1	1.2	1.2	2.4
German I.....	402	51	49	12.7	12.2	24.9
German II.....	249	17	11	6.8	4.4	11.2
German III.....	119	11	1	9.3	.8	10.1
German IV.....	10	0	0	0	0	0
French I.....	238	20	18	9.4	7.6	17.0
French II.....	102	8	2	7.8	2.0	9.8
French III.....	25	0	0	0	0	0
Spanish I.....	12	4	0	33.3	0	33.3
Ancient History.....	836	109	97	13.0	11.6	24.6
Med. and Mod. His- tory.....	385	45	31	11.7	8.1	19.8
U.S. History.....	279	23	11	8.3	3.9	12.2
Physics.....	278	24	15	8.6	5.4	14.0
Physical geography.....	157	10	26	6.4	16.6	23.0
Botany.....	278	29	38	10.5	13.7	24.2
Zoölogy.....	136	26	14	19.2	10.3	29.5
Chemistry.....	198	31	12	15.7	6.1	21.8
Physiology.....	360	60	59	16.7	16.4	33.1
Commercial geogra- phy.....	143	18	18	12.6	12.6	25.2
Commercial arith- metic.....	293	31	45	10.6	15.4	26.0
Bookkeeping.....	208	26	14	12.5	6.8	19.3
Stenography.....	215	25	5	11.7	2.3	14.0
Typewriting.....	128	7	13	5.5	10.2	15.7
Freehand drawing.....	154	13	0	8.5	0	8.5
Mechanical drawing.....	218	19	19	8.7	8.7	17.4
Science.....	127	12	8	9.5	6.3	15.8
Design.....	233	7	3	3.0	1.3	4.3
Hygiene.....	20	4	1	20.0	5.0	25.0
Household art.....	150	22	4	14.7	2.7	17.4
Domestic science I.....	139	9	4	6.5	2.9	9.4
Domestic science II.....	116	6	1	5.2	.9	6.1
Manual training wood.....	208	43	10	20.7	4.8	25.5
M.T. forge foundry.....	75	6	3	8.0	4.0	12.0
M.T. machine shop.....	26	1	1	3.9	3.9	7.8
Pottery.....	45	6	0	11.1	0	11.1
Economics.....	41	1	3	2.4	7.2	9.6
Civics.....	56	7	4	12.5	7.2	19.7

A subcommittee reported the results of an investigation of the use of the terms "honorable dismissal" and "statement of record," which it had made by individual conference and by means of a questionnaire sent to eighty colleges and universities. This report stated that there was general agreement among the colleges and universities as to the desirability of the standardization of these phrases, as to the acceptance of a student's freedom to continue in the institution issuing the transfer papers as the criterion for the granting of such papers, and as to the great advantage of entire frankness of statement in the issuance of them. The report contained also a resolution defining the proper use of these terms which, after slight modification, was adopted in the following form:

Resolved that the term "honorable dismissal" should be used to refer to conduct and character only, and that honorable dismissal should never be given unless the student's standing as to conduct and character is such as to entitle him to continuance in the institution granting the dismissal. Furthermore, there should in every instance be given, in the statement of honorable dismissal, full mention of any probation, suspension, or other temporary restriction imposed for bad conduct, the period of which restriction is not over when the papers of dismissal are issued.

That the term "statement of record" should be used to refer to the recorded results of a student's work in the classroom, and that this statement should in every instance contain all the important facts pertaining to the student's admission, classification, and scholarship. In particular, no partial or incomplete classroom record (for example, with failures omitted) should ever be given without clear evidence that it is partial or incomplete; if the student's scholarship has been such as to prevent his continuance in the institution issuing the statement of record or to render him subject to any probation, suspension, or other temporary restriction, the period of which is not closed at the date of the record, a plain statement of any and all such facts should be included; and such information should be given as will make clear the system of grades employed, the number of exercises per week devoted to each course, etc.

The same subcommittee presented a review of some of the difficulties found in the application of the definition of the unit adopted by the Committee at its meeting of October 9, 1909, and proposed a resolution providing for the addition of a paragraph to the explanatory statement then formulated. This resolution was adopted so that the entire definition of the unit now stands as follows:

A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work.

This statement is designed to afford a standard of measurement for the work done in secondary schools. It takes the four-year high-school course as a basis, and assumes that the length of the school year is from thirty-six to forty

weeks, that a period is from forty to sixty minutes in length, and that the study is pursued for four or five periods a week; but, under ordinary circumstances, a satisfactory year's work in any subject cannot be accomplished in less than one hundred and twenty sixty-minute hours or their equivalent. Schools organized on any other than a four-year basis can, nevertheless, estimate their work in terms of this unit.

A four-year secondary school curriculum should be regarded as representing not more than sixteen units of work.

An ambiguity in the interpretation of the definition of the admission Latin requirement announced by the Commission on College Entrance Requirements in Latin in October, 1909, having been brought to the attention of the Committee, it was decided to send communications to the chairman of that commission, to the American Philological Association, and to the College Entrance Examination Board asking that steps be taken to remove the difficulty by an authoritative pronouncement on the subject.

The committee considered the question of the assignment of unit values to the new definition of the admission requirement in English and voted that, as a tentative arrangement, equal values be given to (1) the grammar and composition, and (2) the reading.

Among the questions assigned to a subcommittee for consideration and report at the next meeting are the following: the literal interpretation of the definition of the unit; the greater unit value of the work of the latter years of the secondary-school curriculum as compared with the work of the earlier years; the effect on the unit of work in any subject when it is accompanied or preceded by work in allied subjects; the assignment of unit values to the definitions of the admission requirements in the subjects, algebra, English, and history; and the accrediting of candidates for admission to college from secondary schools which give instruction in only one foreign language.

Officers were elected for the year as follows: President, Headmaster Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy; Vice-President, President A. Ross Hill, University of Missouri; Secretary-Treasurer, Dean Frederick C. Ferry, Williams College.

The subcommittee which had served for the past two years was continued for investigation and report at the next meeting. This committee includes Headmaster Wilson Farrand, Dean Frederick C. Ferry, President Henry S. Pritchett, and Principal Frederick L. Bliss.

The next conference was appointed for February, 1914, or for such earlier time as the subcommittee might select.

FREDERICK C. FERRY, *Secretary*

FRATERNITIES

The following news item is copied from the *Chicago Tribune*:

A movement aimed at the destruction of the high school fraternity and the rehabilitation of college fraternities in the respect of the general public was launched at a meeting of the Chicago Alumni club of the Delta Upsilon fraternity and guests from other fraternities held last evening at the University club.

Fraternity men who attended the gathering appeared to regard the meeting as of the gravest importance. It was pointed out by various speakers with a good deal of seriousness that the Greek letter societies of the middle west are virtually face to face with a life and death fight as the result of adverse legislation, particular reference being made to the bill providing for the abolition of fraternities in the University of Wisconsin now pending before the Wisconsin legislature.

Unless the fraternities organize to oppose this wave of legislative opposition, it was pointed out, the probabilities are that two years from now secret societies will be abolished in most of the schools of the Mississippi valley.

Two resolutions were adopted. The first contained a general call to the Greek letter societies of the country to a general meeting to be held later to consider the matter of fighting such legislation as now is under consideration in many middle western states.

The second suggested to the national convention of Delta Upsilon to be held in Rochester, N.Y., next fall, the advisability of instructing all chapters to pledge no high school fraternity members after 1916.

Edwin H. Cassels presided, and the principal speaker of the evening was Ralph W. Jackman, who is actively engaged in fighting the anti-fraternity bill now before the Wisconsin assembly.

Mr. Jackman declared that, from a fraternity point of view, the situation at Madison is most menacing. The socialistic element among the legislators, he said, were fighting for the anti-fraternity bill tooth and nail. The movement there, as in other middle western states, he said, was being fostered by a society of the University of Wisconsin called the Commons, which is perfecting a national and highly efficient political organization.

Mr. Jackman said, however, he believed the Wisconsin bill would be beaten. He counted confidently on a majority of five votes against it. The opposition, he said, claimed a majority of eleven votes based on a roll call on the question of abolishing high school frats. He did not believe this claim well founded.

The real fight, however, he said, will come two years from now, when the Commons proposes to renew the battle all over the country. The fraternities must be prepared for it.

Mr. Jackman virtually entered a plea of guilty to the charge of snobbishness which has been urged against the fraternities of Wisconsin in the legislature of that state.

"There are a number of fraternities in the university," he said, "which are composed almost exclusively of snobs and whose right to exist is based on nothing. One fraternity there has a rule that no nonfraternity man shall be invited to attend fraternity parties. One sorority has a rule that no girl shall go to the party with a nonfraternity man."

The charge of immorality in the fraternity houses and of lack of studiousness among fraternity men as compared to "barbs" he did not think well founded.

Henry W. Austin, Alpha Delta Phi, declared that the high school fraternity is a menace of the college fraternity and the sentiment was cheered.

"I can't see any excuse for their existence. We should do all we can against them."

John C. Hanna, Beta Theta Pi, principal of Oak Park High school, also denounced high school frats.

HARVARD ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

At the time that the new Harvard entrance plan was adopted the opinion was freely expressed that Harvard was "letting down the standard." The following statement shows how little justification there was for this type of anxiety.

A summary of the marks made during the first half-year by members of the Freshman class has been announced at Harvard, and from the statistics issued it is possible to compare the work of the men who entered under the new plan with that of students who entered under the old plan. In the class of 1916 there are 453 men who entered under the old plan, this being a percentage of 76.1, while only 142 men, or 23.8 per cent, came in under the new plan. The number of honor grades is distinctly in favor of the students who entered the college under the new scheme of examinations. Over 42 per cent of the new-plan men received honor grades while the percentage of the old-plan men who received such grades is but slightly over 21 per cent. In the Freshman class of last year the scholarship was somewhat higher, nearly 45 per cent of the 1915 men entering under the new plan receiving honor grades and 26.5 per cent of the students entering under the old plan receiving such grades. The marks of the classes of 1915 and 1916 are distributed as follows:

CLASS OF 1916

Grade	Old Plan		New Plan	
	No. Men	Percentage	No. Men	Percentage
A.....	113	4.9	71	9.7
B.....	396	17.2	237	32.6
C.....	1,072	46.6	320	44.1
D.....	532	23.1	78	10.7
E or F.....	186	8.0	20	2.6

CLASS OF 1915

A.....	141	5.3	48	11.8
B.....	564	21.2	135	11.8
C.....	1,182	44.5	177	43.4
D.....	597	22.5	38	9.3
E or F.....	174	6.5	9	2.3

GENERAL SCIENCE FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

The National Education Association has appointed a Committee on General Science. All persons interested are invited to co-operate with this committee in finding out what is good material to present and what are good methods to use.

It has been suggested that we gather lists of questions which young persons ask of parents and teachers in search for information in the field of science, such as: What is the sun? How does it keep hot? Why does it sometimes turn red? What gives the clouds so many different colors? Are we liable to be killed by meteors? Why does our food come from so few plants? How do they quarter-saw lumber? Why are engines always so hot? Why don't we have to light electric lights?

A lawyer testifies that in his profession he has found of great value the general science course which he took a generation ago, consisting of the Geological Story Briefly Told and the stories of half a dozen other sciences briefly told. Many intelligent men have testified that what they need particularly is general information in the field of science. It has been suggested that teachers, parents, and grown-up persons in general send to the committee lists of facts in science which they by years of experience have found worth while to know.

It has been suggested that lists be prepared of the incredible things persons say and do which show the need for instruction in general science and show what instruction is most needed.

Suggestions for organizing common-sense, developing gumption, etc., are in order. Lists of problems are suggested in the field of natural science which require diagnosis at the hands of the ordinary person. In this age of machinery life is becoming increasingly embarrassing to those who regard all mechanisms as uncanny. That education which its devotees are pleased to call the humanities but which seem to leave its disciples incapable of serving humanity is becoming daily more inadequate.

Lists of aims for this work are desired as also lists of sources of information. Lists of fundamental principles have been suggested. It has been suggested that no syllabus be prepared of work expected of

all schools alike but rather let it be urged that each teacher should adapt his work to local conditions. It has been suggested that any good work must be considered good preparation for the following years of high school and college. Facts which will be needed in the future years of any course at school are best taught when they are needed and when they are to be organized for some purpose. It is suggested that sample lessons be published in detail to guide inexperienced teachers in the best method of presenting topics in general science. Several courses in general science have been already published indicating the progress in this matter up to the present time.

All who are interested in this matter are invited to make further suggestions, to criticize those already made, and especially to make some constructive contributions which will in each case be credited to their authors in the published reports of the committee.

Communications should be addressed to the chairman of the committee, Mr. John F. Woodhull, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Iliad of Homer. Translated into English Hexameter Verse by PRENTISS CUMMINGS. An Abridgement Which Includes All the Main Story and the Most Celebrated Passages. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1912. Pp. xlv+497. \$1.00.

Year after year the Homeric sphinx continues to claim her victims, and bold adventurers approach her rock, undeterred by the fate of their predecessors, to try their luck at one of her two riddles—the unanswerable Homeric question (“that philological scandal” Professor Shorey has well called it) and the alluring, baffling, insoluble problem of translation. Mr. Prentiss Cummings, a bold adventurer indeed, has essayed the solution of both enigmas. This latest American version of the *Iliad* is a reprint in one volume of the two-volume edition of 1910, omitting the appendix. In his carelessly written introduction Mr. Cummings rashly offers one more theory as to the origin and growth of the *Iliad*, an inquiry that lies far outside of the province of a translator, as Matthew Arnold pointed out. His guess at the Homeric question might have some interest for us, if he had illustrated his theory in his translation and given us his conception of the original Homer’s epic on the Wrath of Achilles, as Fick has done by a German version of his Aeolic *Urmenis*. But Mr. Cummings wants to get in, not only “all the main story,” but also “the most celebrated passages.” Suffice it to say that he holds the opinion that “at least three great authors had a hand in the composition,” and that in his translation he has retained practically everything which he attributes to the first and the second Homer and “the best of the third Homer’s work.” Yet he omits many a famous passage (for instance, all of Book iii); and he has unfortunately neglected to number his lines, and in some cases to indicate even the books of the *Iliad*. He gives, in fact, about half of the *Iliad*. Besides the omissions there are numerous condensations, generally in feeble paraphrase, and occasionally there are tasteless additions, most notable of which is the couplet about Paris (p. 447):

Who, when the goddesses brought for his judgment the apple of Discord,
Gave Aphrodite the prize who promised him Helen, his ruin.

The remarks on English hexameter in the introduction are more judicious and worthy of consideration than those on the composition of the *Iliad*. Unfortunately the translator is far from observing with complete fidelity the principles he has himself laid down. His verse abounds in trochees for spondees and in such forced substitutes for dactyls as “rolling-eyed,” “worst-looking,” “mis-shapen,” “barley-meal,” “high-thundering,” “little girls,” “Prayer-Maidens,” “dishonored,” “short of gold,” “I at least,” etc. It abounds in

words abused to suit the rhythm, in misplaced pauses, and even in hypermetrical lines.

The translator tells us that he has not "adhered consistently to the Greek spelling of certain names of which the Latin form is familiar in English"; and he gives us such inconsistencies as "Aineias," "Olympos," "Phoibos," "Phoinix," "Tuchios," "Poluaimon," side by side with "Hector," "Menelaus," "Teucer," "Meleager," "Phylomedusa"! There are also misspellings, such as "Chaimaira" (p. 83), "Hiplakion" (p. 96), "Eurimedon" (p. 135), "Pyrlartes" (p. 301), "Amphidimas" (p. 437), "Euristheus" (p. 153), "Delopians" (p. 200).

Mr. Cummings' translation is generally faithful to the meaning of the Greek. His verse is often smooth and readable, there are even occasional felicities; yet the result cannot be called at all successful, for the simple reason that his work is not poetry. The divine fire of the original (*θεοπιδαις πῦρ*) has paled and cooled to dull ashes in the process of transition. The same thing is true of most attempts at translating Homer. None but a true poet can perform the Promethean miracle of bringing down celestial flame from its native empyrean; the Titan's task is too great for mere mortals. Rossetti, himself a successful translator, has well said that "the life-blood of rhythmical translation is this commandment—that a good poem shall not be turned into a bad one." And Mr. Cummings has turned the greatest of Greek poetry into English verse that is often very bad indeed; his translation has certainly far less of poetry in it than the plain prose of Messrs. Lang, Leaf, and Myers. There is space for but a few citations. A fine couplet of almost Shakespearean sententiousness suffers such treatment as this at his hands:

Lost is that man to tribe, to social usage, and homeless,
Whoso, his people among, promoteth palsyng discord (ix. 63 f.).

Other typical examples follow:

Cupbearers wouldn't hold out, and many a decade go thirsty (p. 50).
Leaving their master to roll from the car down side of the car-wheel (p. 73).
Surely my day draweth nigh to be called once more "darling Bright-Eyes" (p. 153).
Thrice he sent forth a yell,—man's head could hold nothing louder (p. 234).
First having gone to a black-water fount and lapped to repletion (p. 291).
Leave life's ultimate threshold my last sights visions of horror (p. 402).
See, that is, if thou carest to look, and such things interest thee (p. 192).
Albeit fearless is Hector and doeth unlimited talking (p. 113).

(This is not only vile English but a gross mistaking of the Greek: the last words should be "insatiate of battle," but the translator has carelessly read *μύθου* for *μάθου*.)

Many a time hath over me swept an impulse to marry,
Settle down, and rejoice in the wealth which Peleus possesseth (p. 194).

Thus ascertaining how Troy feeleth now, this man having fallen,
Whether abandon their high-walled town, or stay and defend it (p. 423).

These lame hexameters the "strong-winged music of Homer"! Yet Mr. Cummings declares that "a translation should be such that the reader will feel that he is reading poetry!"

It is perhaps unreasonable to complain of a translator because he is no poet—poets are generally better occupied than in translating—but when a translator who employs verse expresses himself in a way that would be intolerable even in newspaper prose, it is surely a serious crime. This version abounds in examples of baldly prosaic, colloquial, vulgar, and slovenly diction, and no fidelity to the sense of the original, no occasional felicity of phrase or smoothness of versification can atone for such handling of a noble and beautiful poem. Here are some specimens: "skulk" (as a noun, pp. 99, 112, 134, 189, 458); "panicky" (p. 124); "drooling" (p. 200); "slazy" (p. 51); "the whole of us" (p. 22); "what meaneth thy tears?" (p. 27); "most unhonored of any" (p. 34); "death thou facest, and dare not" (p. 18); "thou foully entreated" (p. 19); "fooled round" (p. 50); "squelching this word-slinging scold" (p. 60); "go right back and sit down" (p. 113); "the Trojans ran every which way"; "many a Trojan and mighty were making assault" (p. 236); "run over to Nestor's" (p. 242); "smashed his head to a jelly" (p. 276); "no great as a warrior"; "right under the nose of the Trojans" (p. 334); "a batch of tripods" (p. 362); "in a pet while playing at jackstones" (p. 437); "the Trojans hanging around in the court"; "ye loafers" (p. 460); "'twould be reprehensible very" (p. 474); "the outfit" (p. 380); "hate which proddeth to quarrel" (p. 349); "Thetis hath talked thee around" (p. 37); "tipping the wink" (p. 179); "the wound quite gurgled with blood" (p. 248); "a need insupportable longer" (p. 242). These are but a few out of scores of examples of bad diction; in fact, it is not too much to say that one can hardly read a dozen consecutive lines on any page of the book without falling into some shocking bathos.

The conclusion of the whole matter is that Mr. Cummings is no Oedipus, and the sphinx's riddle remains unsolved. His failure is like that of innumerable predecessors whose work has been cast into the abyss of oblivion—the failure which Chapman, pioneer of English translators of Homer, so admirably characterized in the case of his own predecessors in Latin, Italian, and French:

They failed to search his deep and treasured heart;
The cause was, since they wanted the fit key
Of Nature, in their downright strength of Art,
With Poesy to open Poesy.

HERBERT H. YEAMES

HOBART COLLEGE
GENEVA, N.Y.

Public Education in Germany and in the United States. By L. R. KLEMM.
Boston: Richard C. Badger, 1911. Pp. 350. \$1.50.

Dr. Klemm's *European Schools and Chips from a Teacher's Workshop* came out many years ago. For nearly half a century he has given valuable

service to the schools of his adopted country in Cleveland and other cities and in the Bureau of Education at Washington. In his preface he states: "Having received an unmistakable warning that human strength is not inexhaustible, I hasten to complete the book, which will preach my last sermon, unadorned but full of good will to mankind."

This personal note seems necessary in beginning a criticism of this new work. Dr. Klemm has gathered together nearly fifty articles, addresses, and papers for preservation. Naturally they are of uneven merit. The topics range from comparisons of American and German schools to discussions of summer colonies, coeducation, self-government, civics, geography, the work of girls, etc.

There is an evident attempt at fairness and often that spirit is maintained for many pages, but it seems hard for the author to recognize as excellences tendencies which did not enter into his own training. His urgent and insistent opposition to women teachers and to coeducation leads him at times to trivialities. He gets well into a suggestive chapter on "English, a Dead Language?" and then becomes so interested in telling of many derivations of words that the main issue disappears. In another case opposition to certain tendencies leads to a disparaging remark about an experiment considered important by many school men; yet in an article published in this book written by J. Tews of Berlin there is a call for changes in German schools along these very lines of condemnation. We need unsparing criticism in all the fields the author enters but it would be more effective if he got more thoroughly into the meaning of the tendencies objected to. Thus the elective system with all its faults has a much deeper significance than the submission to adolescent whim and caprice which a foreign reader might gain from this work.

FRANK A. MANNY

BALTIMORE TRAINING SCHOOL
FOR TEACHERS

A Cyclopaedia of Education. Edited by Paul Monroe. Volume III.
New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xi+682. \$5.00.

This new volume of the *Cyclopaedia of Education* maintains the same high standard of excellence attained by the first two volumes. The fields of educational history and biography continue to be well handled. Further valuable articles on the educational systems of states and countries and special articles dealing individually with colleges and universities continue to appear in this volume. The extended article on "German Education" is one of the notable contributions.

The articles dealing with the special subjects of study form a special feature of this as of the preceding volumes. Among the more important of these articles are those on "Geography," "Geology," "Geometry," "History," "Greek," "Latin," "Language" (including English language), "Grammar," and a full and interesting discussion of "Artificial Languages." In each

instance the history of the subject as a specific body of material is outlined, its present educational status is defined, and the various methods of teaching it now in vogue are described.

The student of administration will find the article on "Grading and Promotion" a real contribution as well as a useful summary. Those interested in the psychological phase will find the articles on "Habit," "Heredity," "Instinct," "Imitation," etc., of much value. Professor Dewey's discussion of various topics in the philosophy and psychology of education are especially welcome and useful; among these may be mentioned "Idealism and Realism," "Idea and Ideation," "Judgment," "Infancy," "Knowledge," "Interest," "Induction and Deduction."

This volume, as the preceding ones, contains a series of short articles dealing with methods of teaching in both its general and specific phases. As illustrative of the latter one many mention the one on the "Grube Method."

Education and the delinquent child is well treated in such articles as "Juvenile Delinquency" and "The Junior Republic." The Kindergarten in both its historical and current aspects and tendencies is fully and suggestively presented. Professor Burnham contributes in this connection a much-needed discussion of "The Hygiene of the Kindergarten," as well as other useful articles on various phases of hygiene in different parts of the volume. We should not omit to mention the article on "Industrial Education" and the one by Boas on "Growth," as having special interest and value in their respective spheres.

While, in general, a high standard of excellence is maintained there are some articles which impress the reader as being inferior on account of a certain "off-hand," sketchy method of treatment. One feels in reading them a lack of a penetrating insight into the subjects in question. Of such articles may be mentioned the ones on "Intellect," "Introspection," and "Invention." The discussion in each case is decidedly commonplace and unilluminating.

IRVING KING

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

Government in the United States: National, State, and Local. By JAMES W. GARNER. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 416.

This textbook presents the leading facts concerning the organization and activities of national, state, and local government in the United States, placing special emphasis upon the physiology of government, i.e., upon its workings and administration. Besides the subjects common to the majority of elementary works on government, such chapters as "Suffrage and Elections," "Political Parties and Nominating Methods," "Federal Finances, Taxation, and Money," "The Regulation of Commerce," and "Citizenship" suggest a break from the beaten paths and a reading of the work shows originality in method and scope. Fifty-six pages are devoted to local government, one

hundred pages to state governments, and the remainder to the national government, which is followed by the Articles of Confederation, the Constitution of the United States, and an index. While one might wish that local government had been more fully treated, yet these proportions seem justified by the fact that the work is intended for general use. In fact, a satisfactory account of local government can be given only by a state edition, and with this in mind the work is admirably suited to a general course in elementary government. References to general works, illustrative material, and suggestive research questions follow each chapter. These have been carefully and wisely chosen and enable the teacher and student to enlarge the scope of the subject.

It would be difficult to find another textbook bearing the mark of such high scholarship and at the same time written in such a lucid, readable style as this work by Professor Garner. It is thoroughly up to date, and deals at the same time only with the permanent features of government. This is not to say that such subjects as the initiative and referendum, the lobby, commission government of cities, and other recent accretions of doubtful permanence are omitted from discussion. These have their place under proper divisions and arguments pro and con are presented concerning them; nor is the author's well-informed opinion withheld concerning present conditions and tendencies. In the opinion of the reviewer this is the best book of its kind that has yet appeared.

A typographical error is noted on p. 298 where "present" should read "presence."

The American Republic: A Text in Civics for High Schools, Academies, and Normal Schools. By S. E. FORMAN. New York: The Century Co., 1911. Pp. 359.

This book, which is based upon the author's *Advanced Civics*, is divided into three parts. Part I may in general be said to deal with the theoretical side of government as applied to American conditions. The author believes this part will give the foundation for a course in civics. The wisdom of this in a high-school text may be doubted, since many general, sweeping statements are made which are confusing and inaccurate. For example, it is meaningless to say that "government pilots society through the sea of man's passions and cruelty and selfishness"; it is inaccurate to say that "government which receives its powers from the people is a democratic or popular government"; nor is it strictly correct to assert that the Constitution (federal) is a "creation of the people of the United States" or that "a city or a town or a county is governed by the people who reside within its borders." All these statements are taken from a single page (4). They are but partial truths, and though in later chapters they are modified, in the opinion of the reviewer it would have been better to have described the government as it actually developed in America and as it actually is at the present time and to have omitted

the theory entirely. It is true that at the end of the chapters "notes" of explanation are added. But the explanation often clouds rather than clarifies the subject. Common law, for instance, it is asserted (p. 157), "consists of a set of rules and principles which have not been promulgated by a legislature, but which have grown out of custom and usage and have been gathered from political decisions and from the opinions of jurists." In the same paragraph we read that "common law may be said to be unwritten, for its rules are not formulated in written documents." This statement may seriously be questioned. Walker, e.g., in his *American Law* (p. 53) says that common law "is the stupendous work of judicial legislation." Theorize as we may, it has been made from first to last by judges." And what are the opinions of judges but written documents? That the author's opinions are not clear to himself or that his statements are misleading to scholars is not the question; but this work is not intended for scholars but for elementary students, and these statements are cited merely for the purpose of calling into question the advisability of attempting to present abstract and theoretical subjects to beginners in civics.

Part II deals with the organization of government, national, state, and local, the government of territories and dependencies, and party organization, while Part III describes the functions and services of government under such chapter headings as defense, international relations, taxation, national finance, state finance, public debt, currency, commerce, elections, education, corporations, labor, crime, charities, and the police power. Questions, notes, and suggestive exercises, and topics for special work follow each chapter and are valuable aids in stimulating further study of the subject. Numerous illustrations are also interspersed throughout the work.

Introduction to Political Science. By RAYMOND GARFIELD GETTELL.
Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. 421.

With the growing interest in the social sciences in colleges and universities and among thinking people in general, there is need for a book that will give a general outline of political science. In the words of the author, "the chief purpose of this book is to combine in brief compass the essentials of political science . . . by showing the interrelations among the various divisions of the subject, to bring out more clearly the essential unity of the state."

The work begins with a list of general references and a list of periodicals containing material of importance in political science. After a brief survey of the nature and scope of the subject the work is divided into three parts—"The Nature of the State," "The Organization of Government," and "The Ends of the State." Each of these three divisions is analyzed and discussed in its various phases—Part I under such chapters as "Origin of the State," "Theories of the State," "Sovereignty," "Forms of the State and of Government," and "Constitutions"; Part II under the "Electorate," "Separation

and Division of Powers," "The Legislature," "The Executive," "The Judiciary," "Political Parties," and "Local Government"; Part III under two chapters, "The Province of Government" and "The Functions of Government." These chapter headings suggest the general scope of the work. There are, in all, twenty-five chapters, each preceded by a general outline and a list of references to standard works bearing upon the subject. These references are, with few exceptions, to works written in, or translated into, English, but they form a very good list for outside reading for the average student, and that is what the work is intended for. While the author "aims to add little to the sum total of human knowledge," the work shows a wide reading and a mastery of materials and it certainly is a real contribution to those who wish to give a general course, in colleges and universities, upon this subject. It is an excellent textbook to place in the hands of students and forms a good basis for a wider study of political science, and, best of all, it is written in a clear, forceful style.

KARL F. GEISER

OBERLIN COLLEGE

Agricultural Instruction in the Public High Schools of the United States.

By CLARENCE HALL ROBISON. New York: Columbia University, 1911. Pp. viii+205.

This book by Dr. Robison, which is No. 39 in the Teachers College series, "Contributions to Education," assembles the results of a prolonged and expensive investigation of the subject discussed. The wide range of data collected is well organized, and the items have been presented for the most part in comparable units.

A brief explanatory introduction is followed by chapters on Agricultural Education (8 pages), The Public High School (28 pages), Some Typical High Schools Teaching Agriculture (42 pages), Administration, Equipment, and Methods (16 pages), Preparation and Salaries of Teachers of Agriculture in the High Schools (14 pages), Special Secondary Schools of Agriculture (25 pages), and Problems of Agricultural Instruction in the Secondary School (40 pages). There are also two appendices, one of which reviews the legislation pertaining to agricultural instruction in the public high schools, and the other presents a list of references on agricultural education. These references are chiefly supplementary to the bibliographies in the Bureau of Education bulletins by L. H. Bailey and J. R. Jewell.

The chief values to the reading public of books typified by this one under review, are two: the source material made available, and the constructive suggestions which the author may somewhat mature in the course of his work. The first-hand materials presented by Dr. Robison were secured by questionnaire replies, catalogues and records, personal visits, and state reports, as well as data secured directly by the author from summer schools, administrative

officers of agricultural colleges, special agricultural schools, and special reports of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Education, State Boards of Agriculture, the National Education Association, and various addresses. A very specific table of contents, an index of tables, and the general index render the materials assembled readily accessible for rapid use.

The constructive conclusions are summarized in twenty-four brief paragraphs. These suggestions are developed by the definitive discussion of the problems of agricultural instruction in the secondary schools, which runs through the forty pages of the last chapter. The outstanding problems are specified by the terms—time, equipment, teachers, textbooks, methods, and special schools. The necessity of adapting agricultural instruction to the community, the value of home garden work, and the need of giving additional preparation to teachers already well grounded in science, are emphasized. In general, it is concluded that one responsible for agricultural instruction must work out an aim and philosophy underlying it; and that the attitude of patrons is usually favorable, while the interest of pupils is directly related to the quality of instruction.

Productive Farming. By KARY CADMUS DAVIS. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1911. Pp. viii+357.

This is a book intended to suit the needs of rural schools of all kinds, and grades in village and city schools chiefly below high-school rank. There is also some likelihood of the use of this book as a text in small high schools where a limited teaching corps and abbreviated laboratory facilities make a longer course of instruction in the subject impossible.

An introduction on "The Teaching of Agriculture" emphasizes the fact of the rapid growth of the demand for instruction in practical subjects in the public schools; discusses the importance of establishing a public conception of the fundamental relation of agriculture to the national welfare; defines the opportunities in country life for able and ambitious young people; and makes pointed suggestions to teachers about the use of reference materials, time-saving, correlation, using exercises, and the development of community interest through the organization of juvenile clubs affiliated with the school.

The book is in five parts. Part One presents "Plant Production" in 220 pages, including a discussion of soils. Part Two discusses "Animal Production" in 85 pages. Part Three is a 15-page consideration of "Animal Products" and is chiefly devoted to the pure-milk problem. Part Four makes a concise survey of the business propositions of farm management. Part Five is an ample appendix presenting twelve reference tables for use in carrying out the work of instruction involved in a thorough handling of the text. There is a 9-page, double-column index, which makes practically every detail in the book immediately accessible.

Textbooks for beginners in agriculture are increasing rapidly—too rapidly

for the actual use of such books to have time to give to all the validity of successful experience in classroom tests of their fitness. However, this book by Mr. Davis, who is the professor of agronomy in the New Jersey College of Agriculture, commends itself by the extreme care used in the choice and arrangement of materials, as well as by the clear English and by the excellent typographical and illustrative features used to clarify the text.

KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

ERNEST BURNHAM

Gramatica Castellana. A Spanish Grammar for Schools and Colleges.
By EVERETT WARD OLMSTEAD and ARTHUR GORDON. New York:
Henry Holt & Co., 1911. Pp. 501. \$1.40.

A recent communication from Washington, D.C., contains the following:

"Portuguese as well as Spanish should be taught in the schools of the United States, in order to prepare for the increased trade relations with Latin America after the opening of the Panama Canal, declares William A. Reid, an investigator of Latin-American conditions, in a special report to the Southern Commercial Congress—Portuguese for Brazil and Spanish for the other countries. 'With these two languages the young American business man will be in a position to transact business with twenty Republics of South America.' . . . Mr. Reid points out that even now many North American business houses are greatly handicapped by lack of men with a working knowledge of Spanish to handle correspondence from Latin countries. 'To establish successful business relations with a people, we must know something of their language, customs, manners, and life.'"

The so-called "Grammar" indicated in the caption of this article is eminently well adapted to give the beginner the foundation necessary for such a "working knowledge of Spanish."

There are fifteen pages of the usual introductory matter with the unusual fact that all the topical headings are in Spanish (as well as in English) although the discussion is in English.

There are the usual divisions of the lessons into the text treating of technical matters, the vocabulary, the Spanish exercise or reading-lesson, the composition in English for retranslation, and the questions on the lesson. In these questions, however, an unusual feature is introduced: they cover not only the reading-lesson but the text in such a fashion that it is an easy matter for the pupil to be prepared to recite entirely in Spanish. The first vocabularies and the reading-lessons contain the words in daily use in the classroom so that by the time the third lesson is reached (as stated in the reading exercise) the learner's vocabulary is "large enough to name the things in the classroom and to talk of the lesson."

The names of the members of the family, of articles of clothing, parts of the body, terms necessary in travel, the divisions of time; the life of a Spanish

family, the hours and names of their daily meals, forms of address, the religious festival of San Ignacio de Loyola (in later lessons other Spanish feasts) form a second group of lessons. The next group, in the form of letters of friendship, introduces matters of interest in the cities of Seville and Salamanca. The last group contains selections from such noted authors as Ibañez, Valdés, Alarcon, in which are presented phases of life characteristic of Valencia, Andalusia, Santiago, and the mountain districts, and the conflict between the old and the new ideals; in closing there is given a selection from Castelar which presents the bullfight from a "Spanish viewpoint."

The "Appendix" contains the usual paradigms of the regular verbs, lists of irregular verbs with page references to the more complete treatment of each, and "is intended to be complete enough for subsequent reference. Particular attention is called to such novel features as the lists of verbs requiring or not requiring prepositions before the following infinitives, the names of animals and the sounds that they make, the geographical adjectives, the nicknames of persons, the brief but comprehensive treatment of Spanish prosody, and the examples of epistolary style" (the authors in the "Preface").

There are also 5 pages of poetical extracts and 11 pages of prose readings from Spanish authors. The book is furnished with both Spanish and English vocabularies and an index.

For the mature student the lessons are none too long for single assignments; for the more immature they readily lend themselves to division into two or three parts, as suggested in the "Preface."

This text is an attempt to combine the "natural" and the "grammatical" methods. It should prove a "usable book" both in high schools and in colleges. The lines of interest are not too difficult for the one nor too simple for the other. The reading-matter is sufficient in quantity and variety for a year's work with students in the second and third years of their high-school course. It gives the spirit of Spanish life and thought without emphasizing the picaresque element.

CARRIE E. TUCKER DRACASS

ENGLEWOOD HIGH SCHOOL
CHICAGO

Applied Biology. By MAURICE A. BIGELOW and ANNA N. BIGELOW. New York: Macmillan, 1911. Pp. xi+583. \$1.40 net.

Teachers' Manual of Biology. By MAURICE A. BIGELOW. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. vii+113. \$0.40.

Bigelow's *Applied Biology* has now been in the hands of teachers long enough for many of them to find that it is a most teachable book, while the more recent appearance of the *Teachers' Manual* to accompany the main text will doubtless make it still more acceptable and usable in the classroom. A careful examination of the contents of both these volumes leads to the

impression that the authors have been more successful than many of their predecessors in combining into a somewhat homogeneous whole the diverse materials of plant, animal, and human biology, to illustrate the great ideas of the science of life. The wide experience of the authors has also enabled them to choose judiciously from the great mass of available material those parts most suitable for classroom use. Aside from its pedagogical suitability, the leading motive actuating the choice of material is indicated in the term *applied* and defined by the authors as aiming "(1) to call attention to the most important facts and principles to be learned by a study of selected animals and plants and then (2) to show how biological science applies to everyday life."

The relative amount of attention given to the different fields of biology may be indicated by noting that some 200 pages are denoted more especially to plants, 185 pages to animals, slightly more than 100 to human biology, and 60 pages to introduction, general discussions, and a brief summary of some of the more important facts relating to classification and problems of heredity. Throughout all these phases of the subject, the physiological viewpoint is made relatively prominent.

The material in the chapters devoted to plants seems to have been well chosen. Beginning with seed plants the various organs are successively considered, enough morphology being included to make the functions and the relations of the organs to their environment intelligible. An occasional statement may not be entirely in accord with the views of many botanists, such for example as terming gymnosperms "seed plants without true flowers," but on the whole the treatment is broad and accurate. A generous amount of attention is given to pathogenic fungi and bacteria, nor are the beneficial micro-organisms neglected.

The reviewer does not feel competent to criticize the treatment of animal biology, but it appears to be fully equal to that accorded to plant life, while in the chapters devoted more particularly to man it is pleasing to note the emphasis placed upon matters of personal and public hygiene. The discussion of the effects of stimulants and narcotics is at once the most scientific and most reasonable that has appeared in any textbook intended for the use of high-school pupils, although it is to be expected that its moderate tone will meet with criticism from the extremists in the ranks of the temperance party.

The *Teachers' Manual* contains in concise form a very large amount of the most valuable material. In addition to more explicit directions for many of the experiments and demonstrations, as well as explanations as to how the desired results may most readily be obtained, there is much information as to what equipment is necessary and where equipment and supplies may be obtained.

The publication of the manual a year after the appearance of the textbook has enabled the authors to make a few needed corrections in the text of the latter. They have also taken advantage of this opportunity to explain some of their reasons for the selections of subject-matter, and to defend the position

they have taken on various questions discussed in the text, but by far the most valuable feature of the book, which alone is worth many times its price to any teacher of biology, is the very complete and fully annotated bibliography, brought down to date, and including all the more important bulletins that the teacher may obtain free of cost. With the manual at hand there can be little excuse for any teacher not having a valuable biological reference library at a trifling cost.

GEORGE D. FULLER

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Plane and Solid Geometry. By C. A. HART and DANIEL D. FELDMAN.
New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. viii + 488. \$1.25.

This text, while it follows the traditional order and method of development of the subject, has a number of distinctive features. To those teachers who are looking for another book of this type the present volume should make a strong appeal. Among the prominent features is an arrangement in parallel columns of the steps in the proofs of theorems and their reasons. "This arrangement gives a definite model for proving exercises, renders the careless omission of the reasons in a demonstration impossible, leads to accurate thinking, and greatly lightens the labor of reading papers."

Most of the proofs of theorems are given in full. Some of the easier theorems are left for the pupil to prove, especially in the solid geometry. Yet those who believe strongly in the suggestive method of treatment of theorems must look elsewhere.

The collection and arrangement of abstract exercises of the usual types is good. But to those teachers who are interested in the attempt to vitalize geometry by teaching it in relation to its practical uses in the world's work, the applied problems in this new text will prove a disappointment.

The proofs of the "incommensurable cases" of theorems, which an increasing number of teachers think a waste of the time of the average boy or girl, are given. The trigonometric functions and their application to the measurement of distances are not introduced in connection with similar triangles, as in many of the newer texts and as recommended by associations of teachers of mathematics.

The many historical notes give interest to the subject. The drawings are well executed.

Complete Business Arithmetic. By GEORGE H. VAN TUYL. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 416.

Teachers of commercial classes will welcome this text. Emphasis is placed upon developing facility and accuracy in handling the fundamental operations. The aim is the mastery of fundamental principles rather than of set rules in the solution of problems. The problem material has informational value. Many of the problems are taken from the business affairs of corporations, cities, states,

and nations of the world. Many calculation tables are illustrated and applied to the solution of problems. The book gives an accurate and adequate view of business as it is actually carried on today. For this reason the text would make a valuable reference book for all teachers of arithmetic and also for business men.

First Year Algebra. By WEBSTER WELLS and WALTER W. HART.
Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1912. Pp. vi+325.

This text follows the modern tendency to make the solution of equations and problems the core of the course in elementary algebra. Each topic that is taken up is used in the solution of equations, a feature that is to be commended because it makes the mechanical work more purposeful and makes it function better than under the old plan.

New ideas in grouping, similar to those carried out in most of the new texts on elementary algebra, have been executed in this book. Thus, only the easier cases in factoring are given at first; the treatment of radicals and imaginaries is simplified.

One might wish that the present text, in many ways admirable, contained a greater variety and larger collection of good real applied problems that demonstrate the intrinsic worth of the subject to the pupil. The very large number of the old-time problems about A's and B's ages and problems about A and B doing a piece of work in so many days can be of only doubtful interest or value to the pupil. Also, the so-called "informational" problems, of which the book contains a large number, have been severely criticized in recent times as being totally unreal and as giving erroneous ideas as to how the world's work is actually carried on. Such a problem is: "The total population of Chicago, Philadelphia, and Greater New York (1910 Census), was 8,501,174. The population of Chicago exceeded the population of Philadelphia by 626,275; the population of New York exceeded twice the population of Chicago by 396,317. Find the population of each of the cities." No one would attempt in real life to get the answers to this problem by algebra, but would consult a table of statistics. The answers had to be known before the problem was made.

J. F. MILLIS

FRANCIS W. PARKER SCHOOL
CHICAGO

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION AND PHILOSOPHY

- Clarahan, Mamie M. *An Experimental Study of Methods of Teaching High School German.* (The University of Missouri Bulletin, Educational Series, Vol. I, No. 6.) Columbia: University of Missouri, 1913. Pp. 32.
- Fry, Emma Sheridan. *Educational Dramatics: A Handbook on the Educational Player Method.* New York: Moffat, Yard & Co., 1913. Pp. ix+69. \$0.50.
- Hartwell, Ernest C. *The Teaching of History.* (Riverside Educational Monographs, edited by Henry Suzzallo.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913. Pp. viii+71. \$0.35.
- Morsch, Hans. *Das höhere Lehramt in Deutschland und Oesterreich: Ergänzungsband zur zweiten Auflage 1910: Die amtliche Stellung der Oberlehrer in Deutschland und Oesterreich nach der neuesten Dienstsanweisungen nebst sonstigen Ergänzungen enthaltend.* Leipzig: Teubner, 1913. Pp. iv+99. M. 3.60.
- Myers, Philip Van Ness. *History as Past Ethics: An Introduction to the History of Morals.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1913. Pp. xii+387. \$1.50.
- Thorndike, Edward L. *An Introduction to the Theory of Mental and Social Measurements.* (Second ed., revised and enlarged.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913. Pp. xi+277. \$2.50.
- United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1913, No. 12 (Whole Number 519). *The Promotion of Peace.* Compiled by Fannie Fern Andrews. Washington: Government Printing Office. Pp. 66.
- Wentscher, Else. *Grundzüge der Ethik mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der pädagogischen Probleme.* (Aus Natur und Geisteswelt, 397. Bändchen.) Leipzig: Teubner, 1913. Pp. iv+116. M. 1.25.

ENGLISH

- Alshouse, H. S., and Root, Minnie R. *A Brief English Grammar.* New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1913. Pp. 46. \$0.25.
- Baker, Franklin T., and Thorndike, Ashley H. *Everyday English: Book Two.* New York: Macmillan, 1913. Pp. xv+336. Illustrated. \$0.60.
- Curry, S. S. *Spoken English: A Method of Improving Speech and Reading by Studying Voice Conditions and Modulations in Union with Their Causes in Thinking and Feeling.* Boston: Expression Co., 1913. Pp. 320.
- Hastings, William T. (Ed.). *The Life and Strange Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe.* By Daniel Defoe. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1913. Pp. 383.

- Hitchcock, Alfred M. *Rhetoric and the Study of Literature*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1913. Pp. vi+410. \$1.00.
- Opdycke, John Baker. *Composition Planning*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1913. Pp. xii+334.
- Rhodes, Charles Elbert (Ed.). *Poe's Raven, Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish, Whittier's Snowbound*. New York: A. S. Barnes Co., 1913. Pp. 166.
- Thomas, Charles Swain (Ed.). *Selected Lyrics from Dryden, Collins, Gray, Cowper, and Burns. With Introductions and Notes. Pp. vi+90. Selected Lyrics from Wordsworth, Keats, and Shelley. With Introductions and Notes. Pp. vi+130.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913. Each volume, \$0.25.

LATIN, SPANISH, AND GERMAN

- Boezinger, Bruno. *Mündliche und schriftliche Übungen: Ein Elementarbuch für den deutschen Aufsatzunterricht nach der direkten Methode*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1913. Pp. vi+138.
- Ingraham, E. S. *A Brief Spanish Grammar, Based on "A Brief Spanish Grammar" by A. Hjalmar Edgren*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1913. Pp. xiv+194. \$1.10.
- Mosher, W. E., and Jenney, Florence G. *Deutsches Lern- und Lesebuch*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1913. Pp. xxii+361. Illustrated. \$1.25.
- Scott, Harry F., and Van Tuyl, Charles H. *A Cicero Composition Book*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1913. Pp. 106.
- Smith, Barry C. *Elements of Latin*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1913. Pp. xi+352. Illustrated.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

- Klein, Joseph J. *Elements of Accounting: Theory and Practice*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1913. Pp. xiv+422.
- Miller, H. W. *Descriptive Geometry*. Peoria, Illinois: The Manual Arts Press, 1913. Pp. 149. Illustrated. \$1.50.
- Miller, H. W. *Mechanical Drafting*. Peoria, Illinois: The Manual Arts Press. Pp. 219. Illustrated. \$1.50.
- Millikan, Robert Andrews, and Gale, Henry Gordon. *A First Course in Physics. (Revised ed.)* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1913. Pp. x+442. Illustrated. \$1.25.
- Sargent, Frederick Leroy. *Plants and Their Uses: An Introduction to Botany*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1913. Pp. xi+610. With numerous illustrations. \$1.25.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN²

Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

Arnold, Felix. Politics, efficiency, and retardation. *Psychol. Clinic* 7:35-38. (Ap. '13.)

Art schools for girls. *Lit. D.* 46:1010-11. (3 My. '13.)

Atkinson, Eleanor. Lincoln's alma mater. *Harper* 126:942-47. (My. '13.)

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A brief summary of what has been done and of the prospects of future work.

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¹ *Abbreviations.*—*Educa.*, Education; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *English J.*, English Journal; *J. of Educa. (Bost.)*, Journal of Education (Boston); *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *Relig. Educa.*, Religious Education; *School R.*, School Review; *Sci. Am.*, Scientific American.

² Annotations by Dr. Frank N. Freeman.

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